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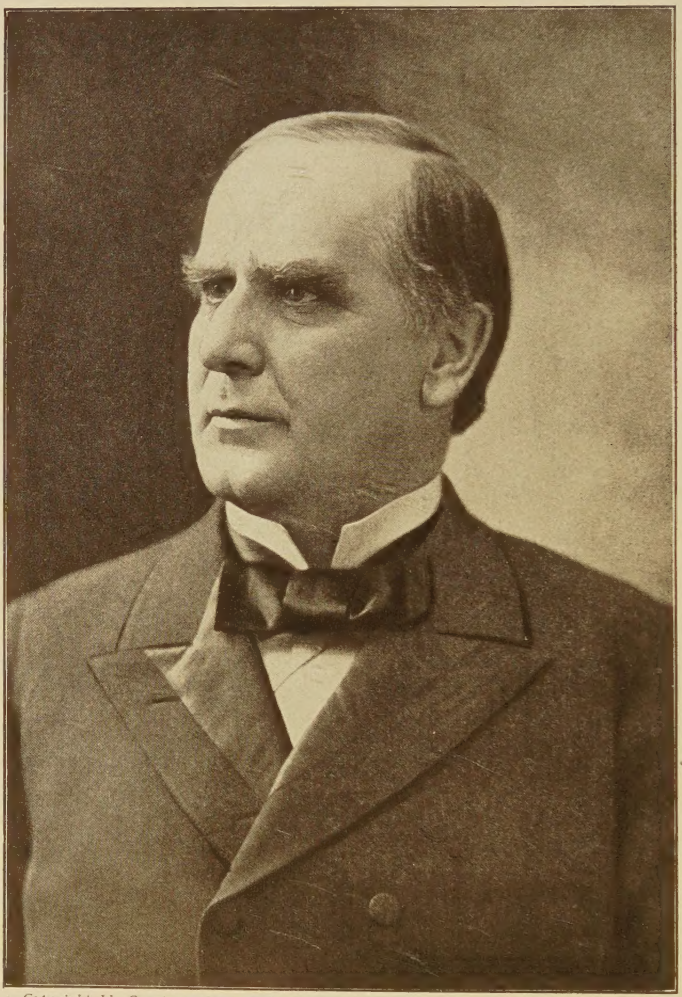

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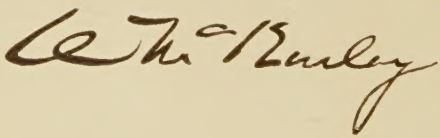

HARPER'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA
of
UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM 458 A.D. TO 1909

BASED UPON THE PLAN OF

BENSON JOHN LOSSING, LL.D.

SOMETIME EDITOR OF "THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL RECORD" AND AUTHOR OF "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION" "THE PICTORIAL FIELD-BOOK OF THE WAR OF 1812" ETC., ETC., ETC.

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COMPLETE IN TEN VOLUMES

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HARPERS' ENCYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

M.

Mabie, HAMILTON WRIGHT, essayist; born in Cold Spring, N. Y., Dec. 13, 1845; was educated at Williams College and at Columbia University; and became associate editor of *The Outlook*. He is a trustee of Williams and Barnard Colleges, and president of the New York Kindergarten Association. His publications include *Essays on Work and Culture; Essays on Books and Culture; Essays on Nature and Culture; My Study Fire; Under the Trees and Elsewhere; Short Studies in Literature; Essays on Literary Interpretation; Norse Stories Retold from the Eddas*, etc.

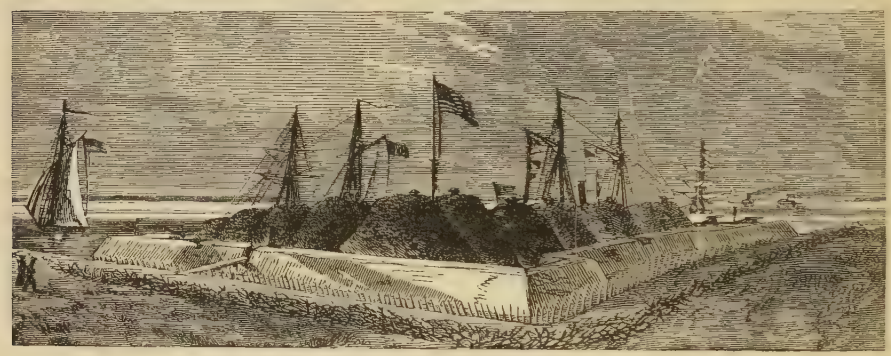
McAfee, ROBERT BRECKINRIDGE, lawyer; born in Mercer county, Ky., in February, 1784. During the War of 1812 he served in the Northwestern army, becoming captain in the regiment of Col. Richard M. Johnson; was prominent in the politics of Kentucky, of which he was lieutenant-governor in 1820–24. He published a *History of the War of 1812*. He died in Mercer county, Ky., March 12, 1849.

McAlester, MILES DANIEL, military officer; born in New York, March 21, 1833; graduated at West Point in 1856, and entered the engineer corps in May, 1861. He was one of the most useful of the engineer officers of the United States army during the Civil War, being successively chief engineer in a corps of the Army of the Potomac, of the Department of the Ohio, at the siege of Vicksburg, and of the Military Division of the West. In 1863–64 he was assistant Professor of Engineering at West Point. He was in many battles of the war, and assisted in reducing several strongholds in the vicinity of Mobile. He died in Buffalo, N. Y., April 23, 1869.

MacAlister, JAMES, educator; born in Glasgow, Scotland, April 26, 1840; was educated at Brown University and at the University of New York. In 1874–81 he was superintendent of public schools in Milwaukee, Wis., and in 1883–91 held the same office in Philadelphia, Pa. He then became president of the Drexel Institute in the latter city. He is a member of the American Philosophical Society, and has published *Drexel Institute; Philadelphia;* and many addresses, reports, and papers on education.

McAllister, FORT, CAPTURE OF. As Sherman's army, marching from Atlanta to the sea, approached Savannah, they found Fort McAllister, at the mouth of the Ogeechee River, a bar to free communication with the ocean, and on Dec. 13, 1864, General Hazen was ordered to carry it by assault. With a division of the 15th Corps Hazen crossed the Ogeechee at King's Bridge, and at 1 P.M. that day his force was in front of the fort—a strong enclosed redoubt, garrisoned by 200 men under Major Anderson. Sherman and Howard repaired to a signal-station where, with glasses, they could see the movements against the fort. Hazen's bugles sounded and the division moved to the assault. A little before a National steamer

appeared below the fort, to communicate with the National army, but her commander was not sure whether Fort McAllister was still in the hands of the Confederates. All doubt was soon removed. Hazen's charging troops, after a brief but desperate struggle, fighting hand-to-hand over the parapet, won a complete victory. The fort, garrison, and armament were soon in possession of the Nationals, who in the struggle had lost ninety men, killed and wounded. The Confederates lost nearly fifty men. Sherman had seen the entire conflict, and when the American flag waved over the fort, he and Howard hastened thither in a small boat, unmindful of the danger of explosion of torpedoes, with which the river bottom was strewn.



FORT McALLISTER.

McAlpine, William Jarvis, civil engineer; born in New York City in 1812; was educated in New York, and in 1827–46 was an engineer in the construction of the Erie Canal. Afterwards he was chief engineer of the construction of dry-docks in the Brooklyn navy-yard. He became New York State Engineer in 1857, and was made State Railroad Commissioner two years later. In 1868 he was elected president of the American Society of Civil Engineers. In 1870 he won the prize which had been offered by the Austrian government for the best plan for improving that part of the Danube River known as "The Iron Gates." Mr. McAlpine constructed the first water-works in the cities of Chicago and Albany. For two years he was the chief engineer and acting president of the Erie Railroad. During the building of the new capitol at Albany he was one of the consulting engineers. He died in New Brighton, Staten Island, N. Y., Feb. 16, 1890.

MacArthur, Arthur, military officer; born in Massachusetts, June 1, 1845; son of Judge Arthur MacArthur; of Scotch descent. He entered the Union army as first lieutenant and adjutant of the 24th Wisconsin Infantry, Aug. 4, 1862; was promoted major, Jan. 25, 1864, and lieutenant-colonel and brevet colonel in May, 1865. On Feb. 23, 1866, he was commissioned successively second lieutenant and first lieutenant in the 17th United States Infantry; was promoted captain in the 36th Infantry, July 28, 1866, and transferred to the 26th Infantry, Sept. 21 of the same year; was promoted major and assistant adjutant-general, July 1, 1889; lieutenant-colonel, May 26, 1896. During the Civil War he made an exceptionally brilliant record, and was several times mentioned in orders for conspicuous gallantry and daring. On one occasion he recaptured some Union batteries at the very moment the Confederates were about to turn them on the Union forces, and took ten battle flags and 400 prisoners. He signally distinguished himself in the battles of Stone River, Missionary Ridge, Perryville, Ky.; Dandridge, and Franklin, Tenn., and in the Atlanta campaign. For his exceptional gallantry in the battle of Missionary Ridge he was awarded one of

the congressional medals of honor. After the declaration of war against Spain, in

ARTHUR MacARTHUR.

1898, he was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers. He was one of the first general officers to be sent to the Philippines, and for his services at the capture of the city of Manila was promoted to major-general, Aug. 13. At the time of the Filipino attack on the Americans in the suburbs of Manila, Feb. 4, 1899, he was in command of the 2d division of the 8th Army Corps, which included the famous 20th Kansas Regiment, under command of Col. FREDERICK FUNSTON (*q. v.*), and the equally famous Utah Battery. On Jan. 2, 1900, he was promoted to brigadier-general in the regular army; on the relief of GEN. ELWELL S. OTIS (*q. v.*) as commander of the Military Division of the Philippines, soon afterwards General MacArthur was appointed his successor; and on the reorganization of the army, in February, 1901, he was promoted to major-general U. S. A., and confirmed as commander of the Division of the Philippines.

Proclaiming Amnesty.—Under instructions from Washington, he promised amnesty to the Filipino insurgents in the following terms:

"MANILA, *June* 21, 1900.

"By direction of the President of the United States the undersigned announces amnesty, with complete immunity for the past and absolute liberty of action for the future, to all persons who are now or at any time since Feb. 4, 1899, have been in insurrection against the United States in either a military or a civil capacity, and who shall within a period of ninety days from the date hereof formally renounce all connection with such insurrection and subscribe to a declaration acknowledging and accepting the sovereignty and authority of the United States in and over the Philippine Islands. The privilege herewith published is extended to all concerned, without any reservation whatever, excepting that persons who have violated the laws of war during the period of active hostilities are not embraced within the scope of this amnesty.

"All who desire to take advantage of the terms herewith set forth are requested to present themselves to the commanding officers of the American troops at the most convenient station, who will receive them with due consideration according to rank, make provision for their immediate wants, prepare the necessary records and thereafter permit each individual to proceed to any part of the archipelago according to his own wishes, for which purpose the United States will furnish such transportation as may be available either by railway, steamboat, or wagon. Prominent persons who may desire to confer with the military governor, or with the Board of American Commissioners, will be permitted to visit Manila, and will, as far as possible, be provided with transportation for that purpose.

"In order to mitigate as much as possible consequences resulting from the various disturbances which since 1896 have succeeded each other so rapidly, and to provide in some measure for destitute soldiers during the transitory period which must inevitably succeed a general peace, the military authorities of the United States will pay 30 pesos to each man who presents a rifle in good condition. ARTHUR MacARTHUR,

"Major-General, United States Volunteers,
Military Governor."

Defining Restraints of Martial Law.—On Dec. 20, 1900, he issued the following proclamation, ordering the strict enforcement of martial law against the Filipino insurgents, and further defining the intentions of the United States government:

"In the armed struggle against the sovereign power of the United States now in progress in these islands frequent violations of important provisions of the laws of war have recently manifested themselves, rendering it imperative, while rejecting every consideration of belligerency of those opposing the government in the sense in which the term belligerency is generally accepted and understood, to remind all concerned of the existence of these laws, that exemplary punishments attach to the infringement thereof, and that their strict observance is required, not only by combatant forces, but as well by non-combatants, native or alien,

residing within occupied places. In pursuance of this purpose reference is made to the certain provisions of the laws of war, as most essential for consideration under present condition.

"Notice is accordingly given to the insurgent leaders already committed to, or who may be contemplating a system of war, that the practice thereof will necessarily terminate the possibility of those engaging therein returning to normal civic relations in the Philippines. That is to say, persons charged with violation of the laws of war must, sooner or later, be tried for felonious crimes, with all the attending possibilities of conviction; or, as an only means of escape therefrom, must become fugitive criminals beyond the jurisdiction of the United States, which, in effect, means life-long expatriation."

Here the rules of war as applying to persons residing in an occupied place who are working against the government are cited.

"The principal object of this proclamation is to instruct all classes throughout the archipelago as to the requirements of the laws of war in respect of the particulars herein referred to, and to advise all concerned of the purpose to exact, in the future, precise compliance therewith. The practice of sending supplies to insurgent troops from places occupied by the United States, as is now the case, must cease. If contumacious or faint-hearted persons continue to engage in this traffic they must be prepared to answer for their actions under the penalties declared in this article.

"The remarks embodied in the foregoing rules apply with special force to the city of Manila, which is well known as a rendezvous from which an extensive correspondence is distributed to all parts of the archipelago by sympathizers with and by emissaries of the insurrection. All persons in Manila or elsewhere are again reminded that the entire archipelago, for the time being, is necessarily under the rigid restraints of martial law, and that any contribution of advice, information, or supplies, and all correspondence the effect of which is to give aid, support, encouragement, or comfort to the armed opposition in the field, are flagrant violations of American interests, and persons so engaged are warned to conform to the laws which apply to occupied places as herein set forth.

"The newspapers and other periodicals of Manila are especially admonished that any article published in the midst of such martial environment which by any construction can be classed as seditious must be regarded as intended to injure the army of occupation and as subjecting all connected with the publication to such punitive action as may be determined by the undersigned.

"Men who participate in hostilities without being part of a regularly organized force, and without sharing continuously in its operations, but who do so with intermittent returns to their homes and avocations, divest themselves of the character of soldiers, and, if captured, are not entitled to the privileges of prisoners of war. It is well known that many of the occupied towns support and encourage men who habitually assume the semblance of peaceful pursuits, but who have arms hidden outside of the towns, and periodically slip out to take part in guerilla war.

"The fact that such men have not heretofore been held responsible for their actions is simply an evidence of the solicitude of the United States to avoid all appearance of harshness in pacifying the islands, and not of any defect in the law itself. The people of the archipelago are now instructed as to the precise nature of the law applicable in such cases, and are warned to mistrust leaders who not only require soldiers to expose themselves to the ordinary vicissitudes of campaign, but insist upon duties that necessarily expose all who engage therein to the possibility of trial for a capital offence."

McArthur, DUNCAN, military officer; born in Dutchess county, N. Y., June 14, 1772. His father removed to the Ohio frontier of Pennsylvania when Duncan was only eight years of age. At eighteen he volunteered in defence of the frontier against the Indians, and served in Harmar's campaign (see HARMAR, JOSIAH). McArthur became a surveyor, and, purchasing large tracts, became possessed of much landed wealth. He was a member of the Ohio legislature in 1805, and in

DUNCAN McARTHUR.

1808 became major-general of the State militia. When war was kindling he was chosen colonel of the Ohio volunteers, and was second in command at the surrender of DETROIT (*q. v.*). In the spring of 1813 he was promoted to brigadier-general, and in 1814 succeeded General Harrison in command of the Army of the West.

Late in the summer of 1814, the critical situation of General Brown's army on the Niagara frontier induced General McArthur to make a terrifying raid in the western part of Canada, to divert the attention of the British. He arrived at Detroit Oct. 9, with about 700 mounted men which he had raised in Kentucky and Ohio. Late in that month he left Detroit with 750 men on fleet horses, and, with five pieces of cannon, passed up the lake and St. Clair River towards Lake Huron, to deceive the Canadians. On the morning of the 25th he suddenly crossed the river, pushed on in hot haste to the Moravian towns, and on Nov. 4 entered the village of Oxford. He appeared unheralded, and the inhabitants were greatly terrified. There he disarmed and paroled the militia, and threatened instant destruction to the property of any one who should give notice to any British post of his coming. Two men did so, and their houses were laid in ashes. On the following day he pushed on to Burford, where the militia were casting up intrenchments. They fled at his approach, and the whole region was excited with alarm. The story went before him that he had 2,000 men in his train. He aimed at Burlington Heights, but at the Mohawk settlement, on the Grand River, near Brantford, he was confronted by a large body of Indians, militia, and dragoons. Another British force, with artillery, was not far distant, so McArthur turned southward, down the Long Point road, and drove some militia at a post on the Grand River. There he killed and wounded seven men and took 131 prisoners. His own loss was one killed and six wounded. He pushed on, destroying flouring-mills at work for the British army in Canada, and, finding a net of peril gathering around him, he turned his face westward and hastened to Detroit, pursued, from the Thames, by 1,100 British regulars. He arrived at Sanwich, Nov. 17, and there discharged his band. That raid was one of the boldest operations of the war. He skimmed over hundreds of miles of British territory with the loss of only one man. In the fall of 1815 he was elected to the Ohio legislature, and in 1816 he was appointed a commissioner to conclude treaties with the Indian tribes. He was again an Ohio legislator and speaker of the House, and in 1819 was sent to Congress. He was governor of Ohio from 1830 to 1832, and while in that office he met with a serious accident, from which he never recovered. He died near Chillicothe, O., April 28, 1839.

McBryde, JOHN MCLAREN, educator; born in Abbeville, S. C., Jan. 1, 1841; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1860. He served in the Confederate army till 1863, when he was transferred to the Confederate Treasury Department. At the close of the war he engaged in farming in Virginia. In 1879–82 he was Professor of Botany and Agriculture in the University of Tennessee; and in 1883–87 Professor of Botany and president of the South Carolina College. He then became president of the University of South Carolina and director of the South Carolina agricultural experiment station. In 1891 he was chosen president of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and director of the Virginia agricultural experiment station.

McCabe, CHARLES CARDWELL, clergyman; born in Athens, O., Oct. 11, 1836; was educated at the Ohio Wesleyan University, and became a member of the Methodist Episcopal Conference in 1860. In 1862 he was appointed chaplain of the 122d Ohio Infantry. During the battle of Winchester he was taken prisoner, and spent four months in Libby prison. After his release he rejoined his regiment, but soon resigned to enter the service of the UNITED STATES CHRISTIAN COMMISSION (*q. v.*), for which he raised large sums of money. When peace was concluded he settled in Portsmouth, O., and was appointed financial agent for Wesleyan University. In 1884 he became secretary of the Methodist Episcopal Missionary Society, and has since become widely known because of the very large sums of money he has raised for the society. He

was elected bishop in 1896. He has lectured on *The Bright Side of Libby Prison.*

McCabe, JAMES DABNEY, author; born in Richmond, Va., July 30, 1842; received an academic education. His publications include *Fanaticism and its Results; Life of Gen. Thomas J. Jackson; Memoir of Gen. Albert S. Johnston; Life and Campaigns of Gen. Robert E. Lee; Planting the Wilderness; The Great Republic; History of the Grange Movement; Centennial History of the United States; Lights and Shadows of New York Life,* etc. He died in Germantown, Pa., Jan. 27, 1883.

McCabe, WILLIAM GORDON, educator; born in Richmond, Va., Aug. 4, 1841; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1861; served in the Confederate army during the Civil War, becoming a captain in the 3d Artillery Corps of the Army of Northern Virginia. After the war he founded and became head master of the University School in Petersburg, Va., which he subsequently removed to Richmond, Va. He is the author of *The Defence of Petersburg;* an edition of *Cæsar's Gallic War; Ballads of Battle and Bravery,* etc.

McCall, EDWARD R., naval officer; born in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 5, 1790; entered the navy as midshipman in 1808, and in the summer of 1813 was lieutenant of the brig *Enterprise.* In the action with the *Boxer,* Sept. 4, 1813, his commander (Lieutenant Burrows) was mortally wounded, when the command devolved upon McCall, who succeeded in capturing the British vessel. For this service Congress voted him a gold medal. He was made master-commander in 1825, and captain in 1835. He died in Bordentown, N. J., July 31, 1853.

McCall, GEORGE ARCHIBALD, military officer; born in Philadelphia, March 16, 1802; graduated at West Point in 1822; distinguished himself in the war in Florida, and served in the war against Mexico, in which he was assistant-adjutant-general with the rank of major, at the beginning. Late in 1847 he was promoted to major of infantry; was made inspector-general in 1850; and in April, 1853, resigned. When the Civil War broke out, he organized the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps, consisting of 15,000 men, and was made brigadier-general in May, 1861. This force was converted into three divisions of the Army of the Potomac, under his command, and they did gallant service in McClellan's campaign against Richmond in 1862. Made captive on the day before the battle of Malvern Hills, he suffered such rigorous confinement in Richmond that he returned home in broken health, and resigned in March, 1863. He died in West Chester, Pa., Feb. 26, 1868.

McCall, HUGH, military officer; born in South Carolina in 1767; joined the army in May, 1794; was promoted captain in August, 1800. When the army was reorganized in 1802 he was retained in the 2d Infantry; was brevetted major in July, 1812; and served during the second war with England. He was the author of a *History of Georgia.* He died in Savannah, Ga., July 9, 1824.

McCalla, BOWMAN HENDRY, naval officer; born in Camden, N. J., June 19, 1844; was appointed a midshipman in the navy, Nov. 30, 1861; was at the Naval Academy

BOWMAN HENDRY McCALLA.

in 1861–64; promoted ensign, Nov. 1, 1866; master, Dec. 1 following; lieutenant, March 12, 1868; lieutenant-commander, March 26, 1869; commander, Nov. 3,

1884; and captain, March 3, 1899. In 1890, while commander of the *Enterprise*, he was tried by court-martial on five charges, found guilty, and sentenced to suspension for three years and to retain his number on the list of commanders during suspension. During the war with Spain he was in command of the *Marblehead*, and so distinguished himself, especially by his services in Guantanamo Bay, that the President cancelled the court-martial's sentence of suspension at the request of the Secretary of the Navy, and the written petition of all his classmates. After his promotion to captain he was given command of the protected cruiser *Newark*, with orders to prepare her for the run to the Philippines. For the speed with which he accomplished this duty he was officially complimented by the Navy Department. When the Boxer troubles in China called for foreign intervention, Captain McCalla was ordered to Taku, and there was placed in command of the first American detachment ordered on shore duty. On the march headed by Admiral Seymour, of the British navy, planned for the relief of the foreign legations in Peking, it was Captain McCalla's tactical skill that enabled the small force to get back to Tientsin, after the failure of the attempt. Concerning this movement Admiral Seymour said: "That my command pulled out in safety is due to Captain McCalla. The credit is his, not mine, and I shall recommend the Queen that he and his men be recommended by her to the President of the United States," and in his official report he said: "I must refer specially to Commander McCalla, of the American cruiser *Newark*, whose services were of the greatest value to me and all concerned. He was slightly wounded in three places, and well merits recognition." On Sept. 22, 1900, the Secretary of the Navy officially commended him for his services in the operations in China, and on March 16, 1901, he was further honored by being assigned to the command of the new battle-ship *Kearsarge*, one of the most enviable posts in the navy. He was promoted rear-admiral July 11, 1903.

McCalley, HENRY, geologist; born in Madison county, Ala., Feb. 11, 1852; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1875, and became a farmer. In 1877 he taught school at Demopolis, Ala.; in 1878–83 was assistant Professor of Chemistry in the University of Alabama; in 1883–90 was chemist to the Geological Survey of Alabama, and also assistant State geologist; and since 1890 has been chief assistant geologist of Alabama. He is a member of the American Institute of Mining Engineers; and the author of many geological papers, maps, reports, etc.

McCann, WILLIAM PENN, naval officer; born in Paris, Ky., May 4, 1830; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1854; entered the navy with

WILLIAM PENN McCANN.

the rank of passed midshipman; was promoted lieutenant, 1855; lieutenant-commander, 1862; commander, 1866; captain, 1876; and commodore, 1887. In the Civil War he drove off the Confederate battery attacking Franklin's corps at West Point, Va., on May 2, 1862; captured the Confederate gunboat *Teazer*, July 4, following; was in the battle of Mobile Bay; and during the war captured several blockade-runners. In 1891 he was commissioned an acting rear-admiral and given command of the South Pacific station. On June 4, 1891, after a spirited chase, he captured at Iquique, Chile, the steamer *Itata*, which had taken arms and ammunition aboard at San Diego, Cal., for the Chilean revolutionists. He sent the ship and its cargo back to San Diego, and was commended by the Navy Department. He was retired in May, 1892. During

the war with Spain he was recalled to service and appointed prize commissioner for the Southern District of New York.

McCarthy, JUSTIN, author; born in Cork, Ireland, Nov. 22, 1830; visited the United States in 1868, and lectured for nearly three years. He is the author of *Prohibitory Legislation in the United States; A History of Our Own Times; The Story of Mr. Gladstone's Life,* etc.

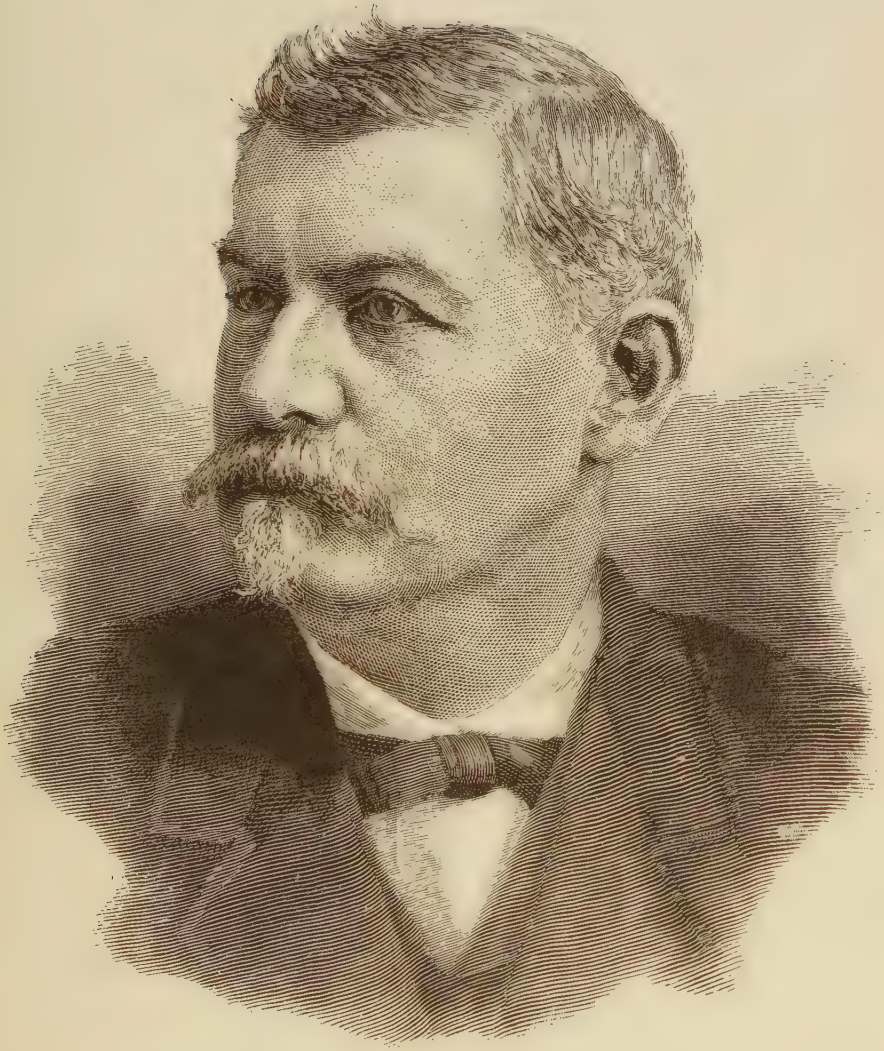
McCauley, CHARLES ADAM HOKE, ornithologist; born in Middletown, Md., July 13, 1847; graduated at West Point and appointed a second lieutenant of the 3d Artillery in 1870; transferred to the 2d Cavalry in 1878; and promoted first lieutenant in 1879. After his graduation at West Point he made a special study of ornithology, and in 1876 was appointed ornithologist in the Red River exploring expedition. His publications include *Ornithology of the Red River of Texas; The San Juan Reconnaissance in Colorado and New Mexico; Reports on the White River Indian Agency, Colorado, and the Uinta Indian Agency; Pagasa Springs, Colorado: Its Geology and Botany,* etc.

McClellan, CARSWELL, civil engineer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 3, 1835; graduated at Williams College in 1855; joined the 32d New York Regiment, and became topographical assistant on the staff of Gen. Andrew A. Humphreys in 1862. In August, 1864, he was taken prisoner, and on being paroled in the following November he resigned his commission. He published *Personal Memoirs and Military History of Ulysses S. Grant, vs. the Record of the Army of the Potomac.*

McClellan, GEORGE BRINTON, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Dec. 3, 1826; graduated at West Point in 1846; was lieutenant of sappers, miners, and pontoniers in the war against Mexico, and was commended for gallantry at various points from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. After the war he was instructor of bayonet exercise at West Point, and his *Manual,* translated from the French, became the text-book of the service. In 1852 he was engaged with Capt. Randolph B. Marcy (afterwards his father-in-law) and Gen. C. F. Smith in explorations and surveys of Red River, the harbors of Texas, and the western part of a proposed route for a Pacific railway; also mountain ranges and the most direct route to Puget's Sound. He was next sent on a secret mission to Santo Domingo; and in 1855 he was sent with Majors Delafield and Mordecai to Europe to study the organization of European armies and observe the war in the Crimea. Captain McClellan left the army in 1857 and engaged in civil engineering and as superintendent of railroads. He was residing in Ohio when the Civil War broke out, and was commissioned major-general of Ohio volunteers by the governor. He took command of all the troops in the Department of the Ohio; and after a brief and successful campaign in western Virginia, was appointed to the command of the National troops on the Potomac (afterwards the Army of the Potomac) and commissioned a major-general of the regular army. On the retirement of General Scott in November, 1861, he was made general-in-chief. His campaign against Richmond in 1862 with the Army of the Potomac was not successful. He afterwards drove General Lee out of Maryland, but his delay in pursuing the Confederates caused him to be superseded in command by General Burnside. General McClellan was the unsuccessful Democratic candidate for President of the United States against Mr. Lincoln in 1864 (see below). He resigned his commission in the army on the day of the election, Nov. 8, and took up his residence in New York. After a visit to Europe, he became (1868) a citizen of New Jersey, and engaged in the business of an engineer. The will of Edward A. Stevens, of Hoboken, made him superintendent of the Stevens floating battery; and he was appointed superintendent of docks and piers in the city of New York, which office he resigned in 1872. In 1877 he was elected governor of New Jersey. He died in Orange, N. J., Oct. 29, 1885.

Presidential Candidate.—On Aug. 29, 1864, the Democratic National Convention assembled in Chicago, Ill., and nominated General McClellan for the Presidency on the following declaration of principles:

Resolved, that in the future, as in the past, we will adhere with unswerving fidelity to the Union under the Constitution, as the only solid foundation of our strength, security, and happiness as a



MAJOR-GENERAL GEORGE B. McCLELLAN

people, and as a framework of government equally conducive to the welfare and prosperity of all the States, both Northern and Southern.

Resolved, that this convention does explicitly declare, as the sense of the American people, that after four years of failure to restore the Union by the experiment of war, during which, under the pretence of military necessity, or war power higher than the Constitution, the Constitution itself has been disregarded in every part, and public liberty and private right alike trodden down, and the material prosperity of the country essentially impaired, justice, humanity, liberty, and the public welfare demand that immediate efforts be made for a cessation of hostilities, with a view to an ultimate convention of the States or other peaceable means, to the end that at the earliest practicable moment peace may be restored on the basis of the federal Union of the States.

Resolved, that the direct interference of the military authorities of the United States in the recent elections held in Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, and Delaware, was a shameful violation of the Constitution, and a repetition of such acts in the approaching election will be held as revolutionary, and resisted with all the means and power under our control.

Resolved, that the aim and object of the Democratic party are to preserve the federal Union and the rights of the States unimpaired; and they hereby declare that they consider the administrative usurpation of extraordinary and dangerous powers not granted by the Constitution; the subversion of the civil by the military laws in States not in insurrection; the arbitrary military arrest, imprisonment, trial, and sentence of American citizens in States where civil law exists in full force; the suppression of freedom of speech and of the press; the denial of the right of asylum; the open and avowed disregard of State rights; the employment of unusual test oaths, and the interference with and denial of the right of the people to bear arms in their defence, as calculated to prevent a restoration of the Union and the perpetuation of a government deriving its just powers from the consent of the governed.

Resolved, that the shameful disregard by the administration of its duty in respect to our fellow-citizens who are now and have long been prisoners of war in a suffering condition, deserves the severest reprobation on the score alike of public policy and common humanity.

Resolved, that the sympathy of the Democratic party is heartily and earnestly extended to the soldiers of our army and the seamen of our navy, who are and have been in the field under the flag of their country; and, in the event of its attaining power, they will receive all the care, protection, and regard that the brave soldiers and sailors of the republic have so nobly earned.

His letter of acceptance was as follows:

"ORANGE, N. J., *Sept.* 8.

"To Hon. Horatio Seymour and others, committee, etc.:

"GENTLEMEN,—I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of your letter informing me of my nomination by the Democratic National Convention, recently held at Chicago, as their candidate at the next election for President of the United States.

"It is unnecessary for me to say to you that this nomination comes to me unsought. I am happy to know that, when the nomination was made, the record of my public life was kept in view. The effect of long and varied service in the army, during war and peace, has been to strengthen and make indelible in my mind and heart the love and reverence for the Union, Constitution, laws, and flag of our country impressed upon me in early youth. These feelings have thus far guided the course of my life, and must continue to do so until its end. The existence of more than one government over the region which once owned our flag is incompatible with the peace, the power, and the happiness of the people. The preservation of our Union was the sole avowed object for which the war was commenced. It should have been conducted for that object only, and in accordance with those principles which I took occasion to declare when in active service. Thus conducted the work of reconciliation would have been easy, and we might have reaped the benefits of our many victories on land and sea.

"The Union was originally formed by the exercise of a spirit of conciliation and compromise. To restore and preserve it, the same spirit must prevail in our councils and in the hearts of the people. The re-establishment of the Union, in all its integrity, is and must continue to be the indispensable condition in any settlement. So soon as it is clear, or even probable, that our present adversaries are ready for peace upon the basis of the Union, we should exhaust all the resources of statesmanship practised by

civilized nations, and taught by the traditions of the American people, consistent with the honor and interests of the country, to secure such peace, re-establish the Union, and guarantee for the future the constitutional rights of every State. The Union is the one condition of peace. We ask no more.

"Let me add what I doubt not was, although unexpressed, the sentiment of the convention, as it is of the people they represent, that when any one State is willing to return to the Union it should be received at once with a full guarantee of all its constitutional rights. If a frank, earnest, and persistent effort to obtain these objects should fail, the responsibility for ulterior consequences will fall upon those who remain in arms against the Union, but the Union must be preserved at all hazards. I could not look in the face my gallant comrades of the army and navy who have survived so many bloody battles, and tell them that their labors, and the sacrifices of so many of our slain and wounded brethren, had been in vain, that we had abandoned that Union for which we have so often perilled our lives. A vast majority of our people, whether in the army and navy or at home, would, as I would, hail with unbounded joy the permanent restoration of peace on the basis of the Union under the Constitution, without the effusion of another drop of blood, but no peace can be permanent without Union.

"As to the other subjects presented in the resolutions of the convention, I need only say that I should seek in the Constitution of the United States, and the laws framed in accordance therewith, the rule of my duty and the limitation of executive power; endeavor to restore economy in public expenditures, re-establish the supremacy of the law, and by the operation of a more vigorous nationality resume our commanding position among the nations of the earth. The condition of our finances, the depreciation of the paper money, and the burdens thereby imposed on labor and capital, show the necessity of a return to a sound financial system, while the rights of citizens and the rights of States, and the binding authority of law over the President, army, and people, are subjects of no less vital importance in war than in peace.

"Believing that the views here expressed are those of the convention, and the people you represent, I accept the nomination. I realize the weight of the responsibility to be borne should the people ratify your choice. Conscious of my own weakness, I can only seek fervently the guidance of the Ruler of the Universe, and, relying on His all-powerful aid, do my best to restore Union and peace to a suffering people, and to establish and guard their liberties and rights.

"Very respectfully,
"GEO. B. McCLELLAN."

McClellan, GEORGE BRINTON, lawyer; born in Dresden, Saxony, Nov. 23, 1865; son of Gen. George B. McClellan; graduated at Princeton University in 1886, became a journalist in New York City; treasurer of the New York and Brooklyn Bridge in 1889; admitted to the bar in 1892; president of the New York board of aldermen in 1893–94; elected to Congress as a Democrat in 1895, 1897, and 1899, and mayor of New York in 1903.

McClellan, HENRY BRAINERD, educator; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 17, 1840; graduated at Williams College in 1858; joined the Confederate army in 1862; was made assistant adjutant-general of cavalry in the Army of Northern Virginia in 1863; was also chief of staff to Gens. Wade Hampton and James E. B. Stuart. He became principal of the Sayre Female Institute in Lexington, Ky., in 1870. He published *Life and Campaigns of Maj.-Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, Commander of the Cavalry of the Army of Northern Virginia*, etc.

McClelland, ROBERT, statesman; born in Greencastle, Pa., Aug. 1, 1807; graduated at Dickinson College in 1829; admitted to the bar in 1831; removed to Michigan in 1833; elected to the State legislature in 1838; to Congress as a Democrat in 1843; and governor in 1852. He resigned the last office to become Secretary of the Department of the Interior under President Pierce. He died in Detroit, Mich., Aug. 27, 1880.

McClernand, JOHN ALEXANDER, military officer; born in Breckenridge county, Ky., May 30, 1812. His family removed to Illinois while he was a small child. He was admitted to the bar in 1832; served in the Black Hawk War; engaged in trade and journalism; and was in the Illinois legislature at different times between 1836 and 1842. He was in Congress in 1843–51 and 1859–61, when, the war breaking out, he resigned and, with others, raised a brigade of volunteers. He distinguished himself at BELMONT (*q. v.*), and was made brigadier-general. After the battle of FORT DONELSON (*q. v.*) he was promoted major-general; commanded a division at the battle of Shiloh; succeeded General Sherman in command of the army engaged in the Vicksburg expedition in January, 1863; distinguished himself in the battles that followed; commanded the 13th Army Corps till July, 1863; and resigned his commission Nov. 30, 1864. Subsequently he engaged in law

practice in Springfield, Ill., till his death, Sept. 20, 1900.

McCloskey, JOHN, cardinal; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., March 20, 1810; graduated at St. Mary's College, in Maryland, in 1827; prepared for the priesthood, and was ordained in 1834. He was chosen the first president of St. John's College, at Fordham, and at the age of thirty-four was consecrated coadjutor to Bishop Hughes, whom he succeeded at the latter's death in 1864. On March 15, 1875, Archbishop McCloskey was elevated to the cardinalate, being the first American priest

CARDINAL McCLOSKEY.

ever so honored. He exercised the office with great dignity, and died in New York City, Oct. 10, 1885.

McClure, ALEXANDER KELLY, journalist; born in Sherman's Valley, Pa., Jan. 9, 1828; was educated at home; and in 1842 was apprenticed to the tanner's trade. In 1846–50 he edited the Mifflin *Sentinel*, and in 1850–56 the Chambersburg *Repository*. In the latter year he was admitted to the bar. In 1857–59 he was a member of the Pennsylvania legislature; in 1862–64 he again edited the Chambersburg *Repository;* and in 1868–73 practised law in Philadelphia. In 1872 he was a State Senator and in 1873 an unsuccessful independent candidate for mayor of Philadelphia, being defeated by a small plurality only. In 1875 he became editor-in-chief of the Philadelphia *Times*, and in March, 1901, retired therefrom. His publications include *Three Thousand Miles Through the Rocky Mountains; The South; Lincoln and Men of War-Times; Our Presidents and How We Make Them*, etc.

McClure, JAMES GORE KING, educator; born in Albany, N. Y., Nov. 24, 1848; graduated at Yale University in 1870, and at Princeton Theological Seminary in 1873; and in the following year was ordained a Presbyterian minister. In 1874–79 he held a pastorate in New Scotland, N. Y.; in 1881–97 in Lake Forest, Ill.; and in 1897 was elected president of the Lake Forest University. He is author of *History of New Scotland, N. Y.; Presbyterian Church; Possibilities;* and *The Man Who Wanted Help.*

McClure, SIR ROBERT JOHN LE MESURIER, arctic explorer; born in Wexford, Ireland, Jan. 28, 1807. In 1850–54 he explored the polar seas north of America in the ship *Investigator*, and was the first to discover the long-sought northwest ocean passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific waters. For this discovery he was knighted and presented with $20,000. He died in London, England, Oct. 14, 1873.

McConnell, SAMUEL D., clergyman; born in Westmoreland county, Pa., in 1846; graduated at Washington and Jefferson College in 1868; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church in 1873. After serving churches in several cities he became rector of Holy Trinity Church, Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1896. His publications include *History of the American Episcopal Church; The Next Step in Christianity*, etc.

McCook, ALEXANDER McDOWELL, military officer; born in Columbiana county, O., April 22, 1831; a son of MAJ. DANIEL McCOOK (*q. v.*); graduated at West Point in 1852; served against the Indians in New Mexico in 1857; was assistant instructor of tactics at West Point in 1858–61; and was colonel of the 1st Ohio Regiment at the battle of Bull Run. In September, 1861, he was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers, and in July, 1862, having distinguished himself at Shiloh and Corinth, he was promoted major-general. He fought in the battle of Perryville in command of the 1st Corps of the Army of the Ohio, and commanded the right wing in the battle at STONE RIVER (*q. v.*). He was afterwards in command of the 20th Army Corps, and fought in the

ALEXANDER McDOWELL McCOOK.

battle of CHICKAMAUGA (*q. v.*). In 1890 he was promoted to brigadier-general; and in 1894 to major-general; and was retired April 22, 1895. He died in Dayton, Ohio, June 12, 1903.

McCook, ANSON GEORGE, military officer; born in Steubenville, O., Oct. 10, 1835; another son of Major McCook; was educated in the common schools of New Lisbon, O.; spent several years in California; and was admitted to the bar in 1861. When the Civil War broke out he entered the Union army as a captain in the 2d Ohio Infantry; was in the first battle of Bull Run; and on the reorganization of his regiment for three years' service became colonel, and served with the Army of the Cumberland, and later in the Atlanta campaign, becoming a brigadier-general. After the war he was United States assessor of internal revenues at Steubenville, O., till 1873; then removed to New York City. He was a Republican Representative in Congress in 1877–83; secretary of the United States Senate in 1887–93; and chamberlain of the city of New York in 1893–97.

McCook, DANIEL, military officer; born in Canonsburg, Pa., June 20, 1798; was educated at Jefferson College, and subsequently settled in Carrollton, O. He was sixty-three years old at the beginning of the Civil War, but offered his services to the government, and entered the army as a major. He was mortally wounded while trying to intercept Gen. John Morgan, in his raid, and died near Buffington's Island, O., July 21, 1863. Ten of his sons served in the Union army.

McCook, DANIEL, military officer; born in Carrollton, O., July 22, 1834; another son of Major McCook; graduated at the Alabama University in 1858; studied law, and after being admitted to the bar in Steubenville, O., settled in Leavenworth, Kan. At the beginning of the Civil War he entered the Union army as captain of a local company. Later he was chief of staff of the 1st division of the Army of the Ohio in the campaign of Shiloh. He became colonel of the 52d Ohio Infantry in 1862, and was assigned to command a brigade under General Sherman. In July, 1864, he was selected by General Sherman to lead the assault against the Confederates at Kenesaw Mountain, Ga., and, while doing so, was mortally wounded, dying July 21, 1864. Five days before his death he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers.

McCook, EDWARD MOODY, military officer; born at Steubenville, O., June 15, 1833; a nephew of Major McCook. He was an active politician in Kansas, and was a member of its legislature in 1860.

He was an efficient cavalry officer during the Civil War, rising to the rank of brigadier-general in April, 1864. He was in

the principal battles in Kentucky, Tennessee, and northern Georgia, and in the Atlanta campaign commanded a division and was distinguished for skill and bravery in quick movements.

During the siege of Atlanta he was ordered to move out to Fayetteville and, sweeping round, join Stoneman—leading another cavalry raid — at Lovejoy's Station on the night of July 28. He and Stoneman moved simultaneously. McCook went down the west side of the Chattahoochee; crossed it on a pontoon bridge at Rivertown; tore up the track between Atlanta and West Point, near Palmetto Station; and pushed on to Fayetteville, where he captured 500 of Hood's wagons and 250 men, and killed or carried away about 1,000 mules. Pressing on, he struck and destroyed the Macon Railway at Lovejoy's at the appointed time; but Stoneman did not join him. Being hard pressed by Wheeler's cavalry, McCook turned to the southward and struck the West Point road again at Newman's Station. There he was met by a force of Mississippi infantry moving on Atlanta, and, at the same time, his rear was closely pressed by Confederate cavalry. He fought at great odds, but escaped with a loss of his prisoners and 500 of his own men. In 1865 he was brevetted major-general of volunteers; in 1866–69 was American minister to the Hawaiian Islands; and in 1870 was appointed governor of Colorado Territory.

McCook, HENRY CHRISTOPHER, clergyman and entomologist; born in New Lisbon, O., July 3, 1837; nephew of Major McCook; graduated at Jefferson College in 1859. At the beginning of the Civil War he entered the Union army as a first lieutenant in the 41st Illinois Regiment, of which he afterwards became chaplain. In 1869 he was called to the pastorate of the Tabernacle Presbyterian Church in Philadelphia. On the declaration of war against Spain (1898) he was appointed chaplain of the 2d Pennsylvania Regiment. Dr. McCook is widely known as an entomologist. His publications include *Agricultural Ants of Texas; Honey and Occident Ants; American Spiders and Their Spinning-work; Tenants of an Old Farm; Old Farm Fairies; Women Friends of Jesus; The Gospel in Nature; Object and Outline Teachings; Ecclesiastical Emblems; The Latimers, a Scotch-Irish Historic Romance of the Western Insurrection,* etc.

McCook, ROBERT LATIMER, military officer; born in New Lisbon, O., Dec. 28, 1827; another son of Major McCook; studied law and practised in Cincinnati. In 1861 he was commissioned colonel of the 9th Ohio Regiment, which he had organized. He first served in the West Virginia campaign under McClellan; later was transferred with his brigade to the Army of the Ohio, fought in the battle of Mill Spring, Ky., Jan. 19, 1862, where he was severely wounded; and in March, 1862, was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers. Having rejoined his brigade before his wound had healed, he was murdered by guerillas while lying in an ambulance near Salem, Ala., Aug. 6, 1862.

McCormick, CYRUS HALL, inventor; born in Walnut Grove, Va., Feb. 15, 1809. As early as his fifteenth year he had constructed a "cradle," used in harvesting grain in the field. His father, in 1816, had invented an improved reaper, and in 1831 Cyrus invented another, for which he first obtained a patent in 1834. In 1845, 1847, and 1858 he patented valuable improvements. He moved to Cincinnati in 1845, and to Chicago in 1847. The gold medal of the American Institute was awarded to him for his invention in 1845, and he received the Commercial Medal at the World's Fair in London in 1851. In 1855 he was awarded the grand gold medal of the Paris Exposition; also the highest prizes of subsequent international and other exhibitions. In the Paris Exposition of 1867 he received the grand gold medal of honor, and the order of the Legion of Honor from the Emperor of the French. In 1859 Mr. McCormick founded and endowed the Theological Seminary of the Northwest, at Chicago, and afterwards endowed a professorship in Washington and Lee University, Va. He died in Chicago, Ill., May 13, 1884.

McCormick, LEANDER J., benefactor; born in Walnut Grove, Va., Feb. 8, 1819; brother of Cyrus Hall McCormick. He was connected with the first reaper manufacturing industry with his father and brother. In 1871 he gave the McCormick Observatory and a 24-inch refracting

telescope to the University of Virginia. He died in Chicago, Feb. 20, 1900.

McCormick, RICHARD CUNNINGHAM, journalist; born in New York, May 23, 1832; received a classical education; was a war correspondent in the Crimea in 1854–55, and in the Civil War in 1862–63; governor of Arizona in 1866–69; delegate in Congress in 1869–75; delegate to the National Republican Conventions of 1872, 1876, and 1880; commissioner to the Centennial Exhibition in 1876; assistant Secretary of the Treasury in 1877–78; and commissioner-general of the United States to the Paris Exposition in 1878. He was elected to Congress from the First New York District in 1894. His publications include *Visit to the Camp Before Sebastopol; Arizona: Its Resources;* etc. He died in Jamaica, N. Y., June 2, 1901.

McCormick, ROBERT SANDERSON, diplomatist; born in Rockbridge county, Va., July 26, 1849; acquired a collegiate education; was secretary of legation in London in 1889–92; minister to Austria-Hungary in 1901–02; became first ambassador there in 1902; and the same year was transferred to St. Petersburg.

McCorvey, THOMAS CHALMERS, educator; born in Monroe county, Ala., Aug. 18, 1852; graduated at the University of Alabama in 1873; became Professor of History and Philosophy in that institution in 1888. He is the author of *The Government of the People of the State of Alabama,* etc.

McCosh, JAMES, educator; born in Carskeoch, Scotland, April 1, 1811; was educated at the universities of Glasgow and Edinburgh; ordained in the Church of Scotland in 1835; later was made Professor of Logic and Metaphysics in Queen's College, Belfast. He came to the United States in 1868, to assume the presidency of Princeton College, and served that institution with marked success till 1888, when he resigned. His voluminous publications include *The Methods of the Divine Government, Physical and Moral; Typical Forms and Special Ends in Creation; The Intuitions of the Mind Inductively Investigated; The Supernatural in Relation to the Natural; The Laws of Discursive Thought: Being a Treatise on Formal Logic; Christianity and Positivism; The Emotions; The Religious Aspect of Evolution; The Prevailing Types of Philosophy: Can They Logically Reach Reality; The Tests of Various Kinds of Truths; Our*

JAMES McCOSH.

Moral Nature; Philosophy of Reality, etc. He died in Princeton, N. J., Nov. 6, 1894.

MacCracken, HENRY MITCHELL, educator; born in Oxford, O., Sept. 28, 1840; graduated at the Miami University in 1857; studied at Princeton Theological Seminary and in the universities of Tübingen and Berlin. In 1863–68 he was pastor of the Westminster Church in Columbus, O., and in 1868–80 of the First Presbyterian Church in Toledo, O. He was elected chancellor of the Western University in Pittsburg in 1880; vice-chancellor and Professor of Philosophy in the University of New York in 1884, and chancellor of the latter institution in 1891. He is author of *Tercentenary of Presbyterianism; Kant and Lotze; A Metropolitan University; Leaders of the Church Universal,* etc.

McCracken, WILLIAM DENISON, author; born in Munich, Germany, Feb. 12, 1864, of American parents; graduated at Trinity College, Hartford, Conn., in 1885. He is the author of *The Rise of the Swiss Republic; Swiss Solutions of American Problems; Little Idyls of the Big World,* etc.

McCrary, GEORGE WASHINGTON, statesman; born in Evansville, Ind., Aug. 29,

1835; received an academic education; was admitted to the bar in Keokuk, Ia., in 1856; was a Republican Representative in Congress in 1868–77. He brought before Congress the first bill suggesting the creation of an electoral commission; was appointed Secretary of War, March 12, 1877, but resigned in December, 1879, to become a judge of the United States circuit court. He served in this office till March, 1884, when he resigned and settled in Kansas City, Mo., where he resumed private practice. Among his publications is *American Law of Elections*. He died in St. Joseph, Mo., June 23, 1890.

McCrea, JANE, historical character; born in Bedminster (now Lamington), N. J., in 1753. She was the victim of a tragedy that caused deep and wide-spread indignation in the colonies, while Burgoyne was making his way to the Hudson River. Jane, a handsome young girl, was visiting friends at Fort Edward when the invaders approached. She was betrothed to a young Tory living near there, who was then in Burgoyne's army. When that army was near Fort Edward some prowling Indians seized Jane in the house of her friend, and, seating her on a horse, attempted to carry her a prisoner to Burgoyne's camp at Sandy Hill. A detachment of Americans was sent to rescue her. One of a volley of bullets fired at her captors pierced the maiden and she fell to the ground dead, on July 27, 1777. The Indians, seeing her dead, scalped her and carried her glossy locks into camp as a trophy. Her lover, David Jones, shocked by the event, left the army, went to Canada at the close of the war, and there lived, a moody bachelor, until he was an old man. He had purchased the scalp of his beloved from the Indians, and cherished it as a precious treasure. Miss McCrea's remains were buried at Fort Edward, and many years afterwards were transferred to a cemetery between Fort Edward and Sandy Hill. The incident was woven into a wild tale of horror, which, believed, caused hundreds, perhaps thousands, of young men, burning with indignation against the British for employing savages to fight their brethren, to join the army of Gates.

McCreary, JAMES BENNETT, lawyer; born in Madison county, Ky., July 8, 1838; was graduated at Centre College in 1857, and at the law department of Columbia University in 1859, and began practice in Richmond; served in the Confederate army in the Civil War; member of the State legislature in 1869–73; governor of Kentucky in 1875–79; member of Congress in 1885–97; and a Democratic United States Senator in 1903–09.

HUGH McCULLOCH.

McCulloch, BENJAMIN, military officer; born in Rutherford county, Tenn., Nov. 11, 1811; emigrated to Texas before the war for its independence, and fought as a private at San Jacinto. He was a captain of rangers in the war against Mexico, serving well under both Taylor and Scott. He was a commissioner to adjust the difficulties with the Mormons in May, 1857. Joining the Confederate army, he was made a brigadier-general, and led a corps at the battle of Pea Ridge, where he was killed, March 7, 1862.

McCulloch, HUGH, financier; born in Kennebunk, Me., Dec. 7, 1808; was educated at Bowdoin College; and removed to Fort Wayne, Ind., in 1833, where he practised law till 1835, when he became manager of a branch of the State Bank of

Indiana. He remained in this post till 1856, and then accepted the presidency of the newly organized State Bank of Indiana. In 1863 he was appointed comptroller of the currency, and two years later became Secretary of the Treasury. In less than six months after his appointment as Secretary of the Treasury, a large amount of the money due 500,000 soldiers and sailors was paid, and besides the payment of other obligations a considerable reduction was made in the national debt. His conversion of more than $1,000,000,000 of short-time obligations into a funded loan in less than two years placed the whole public debt on a satisfactory basis. He was Secretary of the Treasury till 1869, and again in 1884–85. He died near Washington, D. C., May 24, 1895. Secretary McCulloch was author of *Men and Measures of Half a Century.*

McCumber, PORTER JAMES, lawyer; born in Crete, Ill., Feb. 3, 1856; was graduated at the law department of the University of Michigan in 1880, and began practice in Wahpeton, N. D.; was a member of the Territorial legislature in 1885 and 1887; State attorney; and a Republican United States Senator in 1899–1905.

McDonald, FLORA heroine; born in Milton, South Vist, Hebrides, in 1720; rescued Charles Edward Stuart, the "Pretender," from his pursuers in 1746; married Allan McDonald in 1750; came to America in 1773, and settled among other Scotch families at Cross Creek (now Fayetteville), N. C. Her husband was a captain of the Loyal Highlanders in North Carolina, and was among the defeated at Moore's Creek Bridge. After experiencing various trials because of their political position, Flora and her family returned to Scotland before the close of the war, in which two of their sons were loyalist officers. The events of her early life, in connection with the "Pretender," were woven into a charming romance by Sir Walter Scott.

McDonald, JOHN B., railroad-builder; born in Ireland, Nov. 7, 1844; acquired a public-school education. Among his principal railroad contracts are the High Bridge branch of the New Jersey Railroad, the Georgian branch of the Canadian Pacific; branches of the Baltimore & Ohio and of the Illinois Central railroads, and the Baltimore Belt Railroad, which is joined to the Baltimore & Ohio by a tunnel under the city of Baltimore. In 1900–04 he built the transit subway railroad, New York.

MacDonald, WILLIAM, educator; born in Providence, R. I., July 31, 1863; graduated at Harvard College in 1892; became professor of history and political science at Bowdoin College in 1893. He is the editor of *Select Documents Illustrative of the History of the United States,* etc.

Macdonough, THOMAS, naval officer; born in New Castle county, Del., Dec. 23, 1783; was of Scotch-Irish descent, and his father was an officer of distinction in the Continental army. Macdonough was appointed a midshipman in the navy in 1800, a lieutenant in 1807, and commander in July, 1813. He had served with distinction in the Mediterranean squadron with Bainbridge and Decatur. In 1814 he commanded a squadron on Lake Champlain, and on Sept. 11 he gained a signal victory over the British off Plattsburg. For this service he was promoted to captain and received thanks and a gold medal from Congress, and Vermont gave him an estate on Cumberland Head,

THOMAS MACDONOUGH.

which overlooked the scene of his great exploit. From the close of the war Macdonough's health declined. He was given command of the Mediterranean squadron, but his health grew rapidly worse, and he died at sea on a vessel sent by the government to bring him home, Nov. 16, 1825.

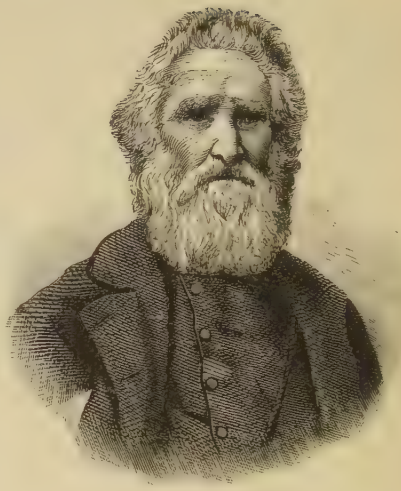
MACDONOUGH'S MEDAL.

MacDougall, Alexander, military officer; born in Scotland in 1731; came to America about 1755, and settled near New York. He learned the trade of a printer, and took an early and active part with the Sons of Liberty of New York. When a scheme for cheating the people of New York into a compliance with the provisions of the mutiny act was before the Assembly, the leaders of the Sons of Liberty raised a cry of alarm. Early on Sunday morning, Dec. 16, 1769, a handbill was found widely distributed over the city, addressed, in large letters, "To the Betrayed Inhabitants of the City and Colony of New York," and signed "A Son of Liberty." It denounced the money scheme as a deception, covering wickedness, and that it was intended to divide and distract the colonies. It exhorted the New York Assembly to imitate the patriotic course of those of other colonies; and it closed with a summons of the inhabitants to "The Fields" the next day, to express their views and to instruct their Assemblymen to oppose the measure; and in case they should refuse to do so, to send notice thereof to all the other assemblies, and to publish their names to the world. In response to the call, full 1,400 people gathered around the liberty pole in "The Fields," where they were harangued by John Lamb, and the people, by unanimous vote, condemned the action of the Assembly in passing obnoxious bills. The sentiments of the meeting were embodied in a communication to the Assembly, which was borne by a committee of seven leading Sons of Liberty—Isaac Sears, Caspar Wistar, Alexander MacDougall, Jacob Van Zandt, Samuel Broome, Erasmus Williams, and James Varick. Toryism was then rife in the New York Assembly. Twenty of that body, on motion of James De Lancey, voted that the handbill was "an infamous and scandalous libel." Only one member—Philip Schuyler—voted No. The Assembly then set about ferreting out the author of it, and a reward of $500 was offered. The frightened printer of the handbill, when arraigned before the House, gave the name of MacDougall as the author. He was taken before the House, where he refused to make any acknowledgment or give bail. He was indicted and cast into prison, where he remained a month, and then pleaded not guilty and gave bail. When brought before the House again, several months afterwards, he was defended by George Clinton. His answer to the question whether he was the author of the handbill was declared to be a contempt, and he was

again imprisoned. In February, 1771, he was released and was never troubled with the matter again. MacDougall was the first to suffer imprisonment for "liberty since the commencement of the glorious struggle," and he was regarded as a martyr. At public meetings his health was drunk, and men and women of distinction in the city thronged the prison and furnished him with luxuries. Popular songs were composed and sung under his prison windows, and emblematic swords were worn in his honor.

MacDougall was active in the appointment of delegates to the first Congress in 1774, and was colonel of the 1st New York Regiment. On Aug. 9, 1776, he was made a brigadier-general, and in the retreat from Long Island he superintended the embarkation of the troops. In the battle of WHITE PLAINS (*q. v.*) he was conspicuous. In the spring of 1777 he was in command at Peekskill, and in October of that year he was made a major-general in the Continental army. MacDougall was in the battle of Germantown, and in March, 1778, he took command in the Hudson Highlands, when, with Kosciuszko, he finished the fortifications there. In 1781 he was a member of Congress, and was made Minister of Marine (Secretary of the Navy), but did not fill the office long. He was again in Congress in 1784–85, and in the winter of 1783 he was at the head of the committee of army officers who bore the complaint of grievances to Congress from Newburg. He was elected a State Senator in 1783, and held the office till his death in New York City, June 8, 1786.

MacDougall, SIR DUNCAN, military officer; born in Scotland, in 1789; son of Sir Patrick MacDougall. He entered the army in 1804, and served in several regiments, and on the staff in Portugal, Spain, France, America, Cape of Good Hope, and West Indies. He had the distinction of having received into his arms two eminent British generals when they fell in battle—namely, General Ross, killed near Baltimore, and General Pakenham, slain near New Orleans. He commanded the 79th Highlanders for several years. His son and heir, Col. Patrick Leonard MacDougall, was commandant of the Royal Stall College in 1870. The family is descended, in a direct line, from Somerled, the Prince of the western coast of Argyleshire, and famous "Lord of the Isles." Sir Duncan died Dec. 10, 1862.



SIR DUNCAN MacDOUGALL

McDowell, IRVIN, military officer; born in Columbus, O., Oct. 15, 1818. Educated partly at a military school in France, he graduated at West Point in 1838, and was assistant instructor of tactics there in 1841. He was adjutant of the post until 1845. In 1846 he accompanied General Wool to Mexico as aide-de-camp, winning the brevet of captain at Buena Vista. In 1856 he became assistant adjutant-general, and brigadier-general United States army in May, 1861. General McDowell had command of the first army gathered at Washington, and commanded at the battle of Bull Run. After McClellan took command of the Army of the Potomac, McDowell led a division under him. In March, 1862, he took command of a corps, and was appointed major-general of volunteers. In April his corps was detached from the Army of the Potomac, and he was placed in command of the Department of the Rappahannock. He co-operated with the forces of Banks in the Shenandoah Valley, and was of great assistance to General Pope in the operations of the Army of Virginia. He was relieved, at his own request, Sept. 5, 1862, and subsequently commanded the Department of the Pacific. He received the brevet of major-

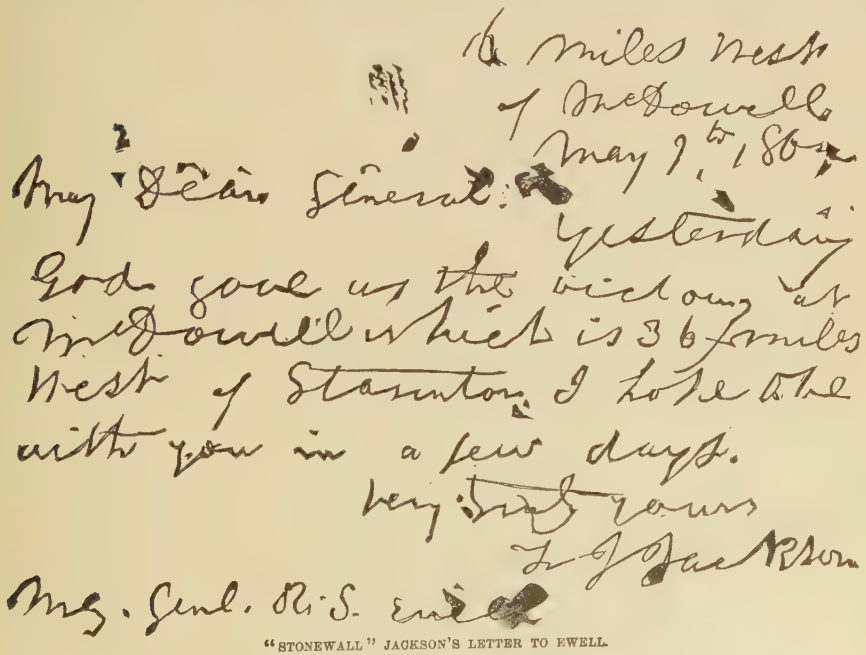
general United States army in March, 1865. In September, 1866, he was mustered out of the volunteer service, and afterwards commanded the Departments of the

IRVIN McDOWELL.

East, the South, and the Pacific till his retirement, Oct. 15, 1882. He died in San Francisco, May 4, 1885.

McDowell, WILLIAM FRASER, educator; born in Millersburg, O., Feb. 4, 1858; graduated at the Ohio Wesleyan University in 1879, and at the Theological Department of the Boston University in 1882. He was pastor of Methodist Episcopal churches in Lodi, O., in 1882–83; Oberlin in 1883–85; and Tiffin in 1885–90. In the latter year he was elected chancellor of the University of Denver. He is a member of the Colorado State board of charities and corrections.

McDowell, BATTLE AT. General Banks with 5,000 men was at Harrisonburg, in the upper Shenandoah Valley, at the close of April, 1862, and "Stonewall" Jackson, joined by troops under Generals Ewell and Edward S. Johnson, had a force of about 15,000 men not far off. Jackson was closely watching Banks, when he was startled by news that General Milroy was approaching from Frémont's department, to join Banks or fall upon Staunton. Leaving Ewell to watch the latter, he turned rapidly towards Staunton, and sent Johnson with five brigades to strike Milroy. The latter, outnumbered, fell back to McDowell, 36 miles west of Staunton, whither General Schenck hastened with a part of his brigade, to assist him. Jackson also hurried to the



"STONEWALL" JACKSON'S LETTER TO EWELL.

assistance of Johnson, and on May 8 a severe engagement occurred, lasting about five hours. Schenck, finding the position untenable, withdrew during the night to Franklin, and the next day Jackson wrote to Ewell: "Yesterday God gave us the victory at McDowell."

McEnery, SAMUEL DOUGLAS, lawyer; born in Monroe, La., May 28, 1837; acquired a collegiate education; served in the Confederate army during the Civil War; and afterwards engaged in the practice of law; was elected lieutenant-governor of Louisiana in 1879; and was governor in 1881–88; associate justice of the Supreme Court of Louisiana in 1888–92; and a Democratic United States Senator in 1897–1909.

McFingal, the title of a political and historical satire, in four cantos, written by John Trumbull during the American Revolution. McFingal is a representative of the Tory or loyalist party in that struggle, a burly New England squire, constantly engaged with Honorius, a champion of the Whigs, or rebels, as the British called the patriots. In it all the leading Tories of the day are severely lampooned. The first canto was published in 1775; the whole work in 1782.

McGee, ANITA NEWCOMB, physician; born in Washington in 1864; daughter of SIMON NEWCOMB (*q. v.*). She took special courses at Newnham College, Cambridge, England, and at the University of Geneva, and graduated at the medical department of Columbian University in 1892. Later she practised in Washington. In the early part of the war with Spain she was appointed director of the Hospital Corps of the Daughters of the American Revolution, and had charge of the selection of the trained women nurses for both the army and navy. On Aug. 29, 1898, she was commissioned an acting assistant surgeon in the United States army, becoming the only woman officer in the army, and after the close of the war she was placed in charge of the nurses under the jurisdiction of the surgeon-general. She was married to W. J. McGEE (*q. v.*) in 1888.

McGee, W. J. (no Christian names), ethnologist; born in Dubuque county, Ia., April 17, 1853; was self-educated while at work on a farm, studying Latin, higher mathematics, surveying, etc., and reading law. In 1873–75 he was engaged in surveying and in law practice; in 1874–76 invented and manufactured a variety of agricultural implements; in 1875–77 studied archæology and geology; and in 1877–81 made the most extensive topographical and geological survey of northeastern Iowa ever produced. Later he became connected with the United States Geological Survey, for which he surveyed the southeastern part of the United States, mapping out 300,000 square miles. In 1886 he investigated the Charleston earthquake, and in 1894–95 explored Tiburon Island, the abode of a savage tribe which had never before been investigated. He is author of *Pleistocene History of Northeastern Iowa; Geology of Chesapeake Bay; The Lafayette Formation; The Siouan Indians; Primitive Trephining;* and many scientific papers. He was chief of the department of ethnology and anthropology at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition in 1904.

McGiffert, ARTHUR CUSHMAN, theologian; born at Sanquoit, N. Y., March 4, 1861; graduated at the Western Reserve College in 1882 and at the Union Theological Seminary in 1885; studied in Europe in 1885–88; and was instructor in Church History at the Lane Theological Seminary, Cincinnati, in 1888–90; and professor in 1890–93. In the latter year he was called to the similar chair in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. At the session of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in 1898, charges of heresy were brought against him, based on passages in his *History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age.* He declined to retract, and withdrew from the Presbyterian Church in March, 1900. Among his notable publications are *Dialogue Between a Christian and a Jew; A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age;* and a translation of *Eusebius's Church History* (with notes and prolegomena).

McGiffin, PHILO NORTON, naval officer; born in Pennsylvania in 1863; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1882, and was first assigned to duty on the China station. He manifested great interest in that country, and when France declared war against China he resigned from the navy and entered the

service of China, after receiving the consent of the United States government. During the war he captured the only gunboat that was lost to the French, in the battle of Yangtse. When peace was concluded he went to England to superintend the construction of several gunboats for China, one of which, the *Chen-Yuen*, became the flag-ship of the Chinese fleet in the war between China and Japan in 1894–95. At the battle of Yalu River, which was the first great combat between modern war vessels, Captain McGiffin early became the commander of the entire Chinese fleet by the death of his superior officer. In his eagerness to work his vessel to a point of vantage he exposed himself to personal danger and was badly wounded. He was shot once in the back of the head and once in the thigh. His body was literally filled with splinters. Both ear-drums were broken; all the hair was burned from his body, and his clothes were blown off. His eyesight was affected so that he was never able to see afterwards except in a shadowy outline; his body was black and blue from bruises. It is estimated that McGiffin's ship was hit 400 times—120 times by large shot or shell. The rain of projectiles visited every exposed point of the vessel. Early in the fight a shell exploded in the fighting-top, instantly killing every one of its inmates. Indeed, all such contrivances proved to be death-traps. Five shells burst in shields of the bow 6-inch gun, completely gutting the place. Though the carnage was frightful, the Chinese sailors, with their commander to encourage them, stuck to their posts. With forty wounds in his body, holding an eyelid up with one hand, this man of iron nerve led the fighting on his ship until the Japanese vessels gave up the contest, and he alone of all the Chinese commanders kept his ship in its proper position throughout the fight, thus protecting the flag-ship and saving the fleet from total destruction. It is the custom of Chinese officers when they lose a fight to commit suicide. McGiffin would not follow the custom, and fell into disfavor. He returned to the United States, became insane from his wounds, and killed himself in a hospital in New York City, Feb. 11, 1897.

McGee, THOMAS D'ARCY, legislator; born in Carlingford, Ireland, April 13, 1825; came to the United States in 1842; appointed on the staff of the *Pilot* in Boston, but soon returned to Ireland, where he made himself conspicuous by his advocacy of the policy proposed by the "Young Ireland" party. Suspected by the British government of treason, he escaped to the United States, settling in New York, where he founded *The American Celt* and *The Nation*. He removed to Canada in 1856, founded *The New Era*, and was elected to the Canadian Parliament in 1857. His political views had changed, and he parted company with his old associates. He was active in promoting the union of the British colonies in North America, and was elected a member of the first Parliament of the Dominion. On April 7, 1868, he was assassinated on the public street.

Macgillivray, ALEXANDER, Indian chief; born in the Creek Nation in 1740; was the son of a Scottish trader of that name, who married a Creek maiden, daughter of the principal chief. When he was ten years of age his father sent him to Charleston, under the care of his kinsman, Farquhar Gillivray, by whom he was placed under the tuition of an eminent English school-master. He was also taught the Latin language in the Free School of Charleston. At the age of seventeen he was sent to Savannah and placed in the counting-house of General Elbert, where he devoted much of his time to reading history instead of attending to his employer's business. His father sent for him to return home; and, finally, the Creeks chose him for their principal sachem, or king. The King of Spain gave him the commission of a brigadier-general in his service. He married a Creek girl, and they had several children. Macgillivray desired that his children should learn and speak the English language, and always talked with them in English, while their mother, jealous of her native tongue, never would talk to them in English, but always in Indian. He espoused the British cause in the Revolutionary War; resisted many overtures for peace from the United States government; and was best known for his general treachery. He died in Pensacola, Fla., Feb. 17, 1793.

McGilvary, EVANDER BRADLEY, educator; born in Bangkok, Siam, July 19, 1864; received his early education in North Carolina; and graduated at Davidson College in 1884. He was a fellow of Princeton Theological Seminary in 1889–90; an instructor and assistant professor in the University of California in 1894–99; and was then called to the chair of Moral Philosophy at Cornell University. Dr. McGilvary has translated into the Siamese language the gospels of Matthew, Luke, John, and the Acts of the Apostles. He is a contributor to the *Philosophical Review*, and to *Mind*.

McGlynn, EDWARD, clergyman; born in New York City, Sept. 27, 1837; was educated at the College of the Propaganda in Rome. In 1860 he was ordained priest and returned to New York City, where he became an assistant to Father Farrell in St. Joseph's Church. In 1866 he was appointed pastor of St. Stephen's Church in New York, and while in this pastorate founded St. Stephen's Home for Orphan and Destitute Children on a very meagre scale, but so rapidly did the enterprise grow that in a few years it occupied three lots on Twenty-eighth Street, two large houses, 20 acres of land at New Dorp, S. I., and an acre of land and house at Belmont, Fordham. He became a strong advocate of the single-tax theories of HENRY GEORGE (*q. v.*), whom he heartily supported as candidate for mayor of New York City in 1887. These views were rebuked in a letter written him by Archbishop Corrigan, and shortly afterwards he was suspended from his pastorate and summoned to Rome to appear before the tribunal of the Propaganda. He, however, refused to go, and, in consequence, was excommunicated. In 1892 he was restored to the exercise of his priestly functions. In 1894 Archbishop Corrigan appointed him pastor of St. Mary's Church at Newburg, N. Y., where he died, Jan. 7, 1900.

McGovern, JOHN, author; born in Troy, N. Y., Feb. 18, 1850; was connected with the Chicago *Tribune* for sixteen years. He is the author of *Empire of Information; Famous Women of the World; American Statesmen; Histories of Wheat, Money, Paint, and Market Places*, etc.

MacGregor, JOHN, political economist; born in Drynie, Ross-shire, Scotland, in 1797; went to Canada early in life and became connected with a commercial house on Prince Edward Island. Subsequently he returned to Scotland and represented Glasgow in Parliament. His publications include *Commercial and Financial Legislation of Europe and America; American Discovery from the Times of Columbus; History of the British Empire from the Accession of James I.*, etc. He died in Boulogne, France, April 23, 1857.

Machen, WILLIS BENSON, legislator; born in Caldwell county, Ky., April 5, 1810; elected to the State Senate in 1853, and to the State Assembly in 1856 and 1860; sympathized with the South, and represented Kentucky in the Confederate Congress in 1861–64. He was appointed United States Senator from Kentucky to fill an unexpired term from December, 1872, to March, 1873. He received one electoral vote in 1872 for Vice-President. He died in Louisville, Ky., Sept. 28, 1893.

McHenry, JAMES, statesman; born in Ireland, Nov. 16, 1753; emigrated to the United States in 1771; served during the Revolutionary War as surgeon. On May 15, 1778, he was made Washington's private secretary, which office he held for two years, when he was transferred to the staff of Lafayette. He was a member of the Maryland Senate in 1781–86, and of Congress in 1783–86. Washington appointed him Secretary of War in January, 1796, and he served until 1801. He died in Baltimore, Md., May 3, 1816.

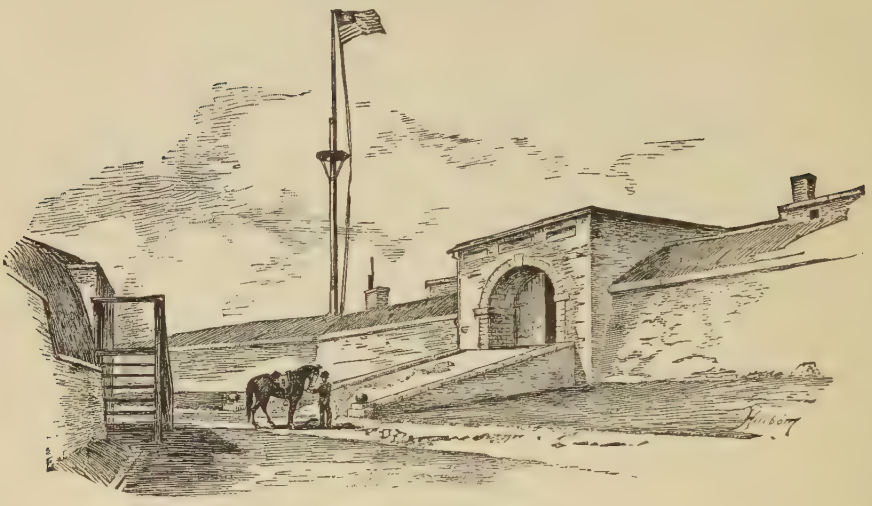
McHenry, FORT, a protective work on Locust Point, Baltimore, about one-half its present dimensions. In anticipation of a visit from the British marauding squadrons in 1814, the people of Baltimore sunk some vessels in the narrow channel between the fort and Lazzaretto Point, which prevented the passage of an enemy's ships. Fort McHenry was garrisoned by about 1,000 men, volunteers and regulars, commanded by MAJ. GEORGE ARMISTEAD (*q. v.*). To the right of it, guarding the shores of the Patapsco, and to prevent troops landing in the rear, were two redoubts—Fort Covington and Babcock's Battery. In the rear of these, upon high ground, was an unfinished circular redoubt for seven guns, and on Lazzaretto Point, opposite Fort McHenry, was a small battery. This and Fort Covington were

in charge of officers of Barney's flotilla. Such were Fort McHenry and its supporters on the morning of Sept. 12, when the British fleet, under Admiral Cochrane, consisting of sixteen heavy vessels, five of them bomb-ships, had made full preparations for the bombardment of the fort.

At sunrise, Sept. 13, the bomb-vessels opened a heavy fire on the fort and its dependencies at a distance of 2 miles, and kept up a well-directed bombardment until 3 P.M. Armistead immediately opened the batteries of Fort McHenry upon the assailants; but after a while he found that his missiles fell short of his antagonist and were harmless. The garrison was composed of two companies of sea fencibles, under Captains Bunbury and Addison; two companies of volunteers from the city of Baltimore, under the command of Captains Berry and Pennington; a company of United States artillery, under Captain Evans; a company of volunteer artillerists, led by Judge Joseph H. Nicholson; a detachment of Barney's flotilla, under Lieutenant Redman, and detachments of regulars, 600 strong, furnished by General Winder, and under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Stewart and Major Lane. The garrison was exposed to a tremendous shower of shells for several hours, without the power to inflict injury in turn, or even to check the fury of the assault; yet they endured the trial with cool courage and great fortitude. At length a bomb-shell dismounted a 24-pounder in the fort, killing a lieutenant and wounding several of the men. Admiral Cochrane, observing the confusion in the fort caused by this event, and hoping to profit by it, ordered three of his bomb-vessels to move up nearer the fort, in order to increase the effectiveness of their guns. Armistead was delighted, and immediately ordered a general cannonade and bombardment from every part of the fort; and so severe was his punishment of the venturesome intruders that within half an hour they fell back to their old anchorage. A rocket vessel (*Erebus*) was so badly damaged that the British were compelled to send a division of small boats to tow her out of reach of Armistead's guns. The garrison gave three cheers, and the firing ceased.

After the British vessels had resumed their former stations, they opened a more furious bombardment than before, and kept it up until after midnight, when it was discovered that a considerable force (1,200 picked men in barges) had been sent up the Patapsco in the gloom to attack Fort McHenry in the rear. They were repulsed, and the bombardment from the vessels ceased. At 7 A.M., on the 14th, the hostile shipping and land forces menacing the city withdrew, and Baltimore was saved. In this attack on the fort the British did not lose a man; and the Americans had only four men killed and twenty-four wounded, chiefly by the exploding of the shell that dismounted the 24-pounder. During the bombardment FRANCIS S. KEY (*q. v.*) was held in custody in a vessel of the fleet, and was inspired by the event to compose *The Star-Spangled Banner*. Armistead and his brave band received the grateful bene-

RUINS OF BATTERY AT FORT McHENRY.



SALLYPORT OF FORT McHENRY.

dictions of the people of Baltimore and of the whole country. Governor-General Prevost, of Canada, was so certain of an easy victory at Baltimore that he ordered rejoicings on account of the capture of Washington to be postponed until after the capture of Baltimore should be reported. Locust Point is to be transformed into a park of the city of Baltimore, but the fort is to remain intact.

McIlwaine, RICHARD, clergyman; born in Petersburg, Va., May 20, 1834; graduated at Hampden-Sidney College in 1853, and afterwards studied at the Union Theological Seminary of Virginia, and at the Free Church College of Edinburgh, Scotland. Returning to the United States, he was ordained a Presbyterian minister in December, 1858. Subsequently he held pastorates at Amelia, Farmville, and Lynchburg, Va. He served in the Confederate army as lieutenant and chaplain of the 44th Virginia Regiment. In 1872–83 he was secretary of the boards of home and foreign missions of the Southern Presbyterian Church, and in the latter year became president of Hampden-Sidney College.

McIntosh, LACHLAN, military officer; born near Inverness, Scotland, March 17, 1725. His father, at the head of 100 of the clan McIntosh, came to Georgia with Oglethorpe in 1736 and settled at New Inverness, in what is now McIntosh county, Georgia. Some of his sons and grandsons bore commissions in the army of the Revolution. Lachlan received assistance in the study of mathematics from Oglethorpe. At maturity he entered the counting-room of Henry Laurens, in Charleston, as clerk. Making himself familiar with military tactics, he was ready to enter

LACHLAN McINTOSH.

the field when the Revolutionary War began, and he served faithfully in that struggle, rising to the rank of brigadier-general. BUTTON GWINNETT (*q. v.*) persecuted McIntosh beyond endurance, and he called the persecutor a scoundrel. A duel ensued, and in it Gwinnett was killed. McIntosh was at the siege of Savannah in 1779, and was made a prisoner at Charleston in 1780. In 1784 he was in Congress, and the next year was a commissioner to treat with the Southern Indians. He died in Savannah, Feb. 20, 1806.

Mackay, CHARLES, author; born in Perth, Scotland, in 1814; educated in London and Brussels; was connected with the London *Morning Chronicle* in 1834–44; editor of the Glasgow *Argus* in 1844–47. Subsequently he visited the United States, where he lectured on *Songs—National, Historical, and Popular.* Returning to England, he established the London *Review.* In 1862 he again came to the United States and for three years was war correspondent for the London *Times.* He published *Life and Liberty in America; Gaelic Etymology of the English Language;* etc. He died in December, 1889.

Mackay, JOHN WILLIAM, capitalist; born in Dublin, Ireland, Nov. 28, 1831; worked in mines in California and Nevada; was one of the discoverers of the Bonanza mines of the Comstock lode; a founder and the president of the Nevada Bank of San Francisco; and with James Gordon Bennett established the Commercial Cable Company, which laid two cables across the Atlantic Ocean. He died in London, England, July 20, 1902.

McKean, THOMAS, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in New London, Chester co., Pa., March 19, 1734; was admitted to the bar in 1757, and chosen clerk of the Assembly. He was a member of that body for the county of New Castle, from 1762 to 1779, and member of the Stamp Act Congress in 1765. He and Lynch and Otis framed the address to the British Parliament. He held several local offices, and in 1774–83 was a member of the Continental Congress. McKean was the only man who was a member of that body continually during the whole period of the war. He was active in procuring a unanimous vote for the Declaration of Independence, and was one of the committee that drew up the Articles of Confederation. From 1777 till 1779 he held the office of president of the State of Delaware; also executed the duties of chief-justice of Pennsylvania. He was governor of Pennsylvania, 1799–1808. He died in Philadelphia, June 24, 1817.

McKean, WILLIAM WISTER, naval officer; born in Huntingdon county, Pa., Sept. 19, 1800; was a son of Judge Joseph Borden McKean and nephew of Gov. Thomas McKean. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1814; became a lieutenant in 1825, a commander in 1841, captain in 1855, and commodore in July, 1862, when he was retired. In command of a schooner, under Commodore Porter, he assisted that officer (1823–24) in suppressing piracy in the West Indies. In 1860 he was engaged in the special service of conveying the Japanese embassy home. He was governor of the Naval Asylum, Philadelphia, in 1858–61, and was for a short time after his return from Japan in command of the Western Gulf blockading squadron. He died near Binghamton, N. Y., April 22, 1865.

McKelway, ST. CLAIR, journalist; born in Columbia, Mo., March 15, 1845; educated at Trenton, N. J.; admitted to the bar in 1866, but never practised. He became editor of the Brooklyn *Daily Eagle* in 1883, and afterwards a regent of the University of the State of New York. He is an honorary member of the Long Island Historical Society and of the Society of Medical Jurisprudence, and a director of the American Social Science Association. Mr. McKelway is widely known as a speaker and writer on educational and historical subjects.

McKenna, JOSEPH, jurist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 10, 1843; was a student in St. Joseph's College; removed to Benicia, Cal., in 1855; and was admitted to the bar there in 1865. He was twice district attorney for Solano county, and in 1875–76 a member of the State legislature. In 1885 he was elected to Congress, where he served till 1893, when he was appointed a United States circuit judge. From March, 1897, till January, 1898, he was United States Attorney-General, and then became an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.

McKenney, THOMAS LORRAINE, author; born in Hopewell, Md., March 21, 1785; was educated in Chestertown, Md.; and was made superintendent of the bureau of Indian affairs in 1824. His publications include *Sketches of a Tour to the Lakes, etc.; A History of the Indian Tribes; Essays on the Spirit of Jacksonianism as Exemplified in its Deadly Hostility to the Bank of the United States, etc.; Memoirs, Official and Personal, with Sketches of Travels among the Northern and Southern Indians,* etc. He died in New York City, Feb. 19, 1859.

Mackenzie, ALEXANDER SLIDELL, naval officer; born in New York City, April 6, 1803; joined the navy in 1815; was promoted commander in 1841. While in charge of the brig *Somers,* the crew of which was composed chiefly of naval apprentices, he discovered a mutinous plot on board, and immediately called a council of officers, which after a careful examination advised that the three persons principally involved in the affair be executed. On Dec. 1, 1842, the decision was put into effect. Soon after the *Somers* reached New York a court of inquiry began an investigation, which fully approved Mackenzie's action, and later he was acquitted by a court-martial before which he was tried. He was, however, severely criticised by many, as the young men whom he had executed were of good social standing, one of them being a son of John C. Spencer, then Secretary of War. The decision of the court-martial did not quiet this criticism, which greatly embittered the remainder of Mackenzie's life. His publications include *Popular Essays on Naval Subjects; The American in England; Life of John Paul Jones; Life of Commodore Oliver H. Perry; Life of Commodore Stephen Decatur,* etc. He died in Tarrytown, N. Y., Sept. 13, 1848.

Mackenzie, SIR ALEXANDER, explorer; born in Inverness, Scotland, about 1755; was early engaged in the fur-trade in Canada. He set out to explore the vast wilderness northward in June, 1789, having spent a year previously in England studying astronomy and navigation. At the western part of the Great Slave Lake he entered a river in an unexplored wilderness, and gave his name to it. Its course was followed until July 12, when his voyage was terminated by ice and he returned to his place of departure, Fort Chippewayan. He had reached lat. 69° 1′ N. In October, 1792, he crossed the continent to the Pacific Ocean, which he reached in July, 1793, in lat. 51° 21′ N. He returned, went to England, and published (1801) *Voyages from Montreal, on the River St. Lawrence, through the Continent of North America, to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans, in the Years 1789 and 1793,* with excellent maps. He was knighted in 1802, and died in Dalhousie, Scotland, March 12, 1820.

Mackenzie, WILLIAM LYON, journalist; born in Dundee, Scotland, March 12, 1795; kept a circulating library near Dundee when he was seventeen years of age, and was afterwards clerk to Lord Lonsdale, in England. He went to Canada in 1820, where he was engaged successfully in the book and drug trade in Toronto. He entered political life in 1823; edited the *Colonial Advocate* (1824–33) and was a natural agitator. He criticised the government party, and efforts to suppress his paper failed. Rioters destroyed his office in 1826, and the people, whose cause he advocated, elected him to the Canadian Parliament. Five times he was expelled from that body for alleged libels in his newspaper, and was as often re-elected, until finally the Assembly got rid of him by refusing to issue a writ for a new election. He went to England in 1832, with a petition of grievances to the home government. In 1836 Toronto was incorporated a city, and Mackenzie was chosen its first mayor. He engaged, as a leader, in the Canadian Rebellion (see CANADA), when he was outlawed by his government, his property was confiscated, and he fled to the United States. Arrested at Rochester by the United States authorities on a charge of a violation of the neutrality laws, he was sentenced to eighteen months' imprisonment in the county jail of Monroe. At the end of that time he went to New York, where he was the actuary of the Mechanics' Institute, and with his family resided in the basement of their school building. He was editorially connected with the New York *Tribune* for some time, and published *Mackenzie's Gazette.* In 1850 his government pardoned him, restored his

confiscated property, and he returned to Canada, where he was elected to Parliament, and remained a member of the Assembly until 1858. He established a newspaper in Toronto, and conducted it until his death, Aug. 28, 1861. Mackenzie was a thoroughly sincere and honest man, and had the courage of his convictions. His admirers purchased for him a residence near Toronto and a small annuity.

McKibbin, CHAMBERS, military officer; born in Chambersburg, Pa., Nov. 2, 1841; entered the regular army, Sept. 22, 1862; was commissioned a second lieutenant in the 14th Infantry two days afterwards; and promoted first lieutenant, June, 1864; captain of the 35th Infantry, July, 1866; major of the 25th Infantry, April, 1892; lieutenant-colonel of the 21st Infantry, May, 1896; and colonel of the 12th Infantry, April 1, 1899. He greatly distinguished himself in 1864 in the battle of North Anna River, Va. In July, 1898, he was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers for the war with Spain. He took an active part in the Santiago campaign, and for his services there received special mention in the official reports of General Shafter. After the surrender of the Spaniards at Santiago he was appointed military governor of that city.

McKim, CHARLES FOLLEN, architect; born in Chester county, Pa., Aug. 24, 1847; studied at the Harvard Scientific School in 1866–67, and then took the three years' course in architecture at the École des Beaux-Arts, Paris. Returning to the United States, he became a partner of William R. Mead and Stanford White in New York. This firm soon made a notable advance in architectural construction, and have planned a number of the most attractive buildings in the country, including the new Public Library in Boston, Madison Square Garden, and the building of the American Safe Deposit Company in New York City, residences and summer cottages, music-halls and casinos, and a number of club-houses and churches.

Mackinaw, or MICHILIMACKINAC. In the bosom of the clear, cold, and damp waters of the strait between Lakes Huron and Michigan—a strait 40 miles in length—stands a limestone rock about 7 miles in circumference, rising in its centre to an altitude of nearly 300 feet, and covered with a rough and generous soil, out of which springs heavy timber. The Indians, impressed by its form, called it Mich-il-i-mack-i-nac—"The Great Turtle." On the opposite shore of the peninsula of Michigan, French Jesuits erected a stronghold and called it Fort Michilimackinac, which name has been abbreviated to Mackinaw. This fort fell into the hands of the British, in their conquest of Canada in 1760, but the Indians there remained hostile to their new masters. "You have conquered the French," they said, "but you have not conquered us." The most important village of the Chippewas, one of the most powerful tribes of Pontiac's confederacy, was upon the back of Michilimackinac. Early in the summer of 1763 the front of the island was filled with Indians, who, professing warm friendship for the English, invited the garrison at Fort Mackinaw to witness a great game of ball—an exciting amusement. They did so. At length a ball, making a lofty curve in the air, fell near the pickets. It was a preconcerted signal. The warriors rushed towards the fort as if in quest of the ball, when their hands suddenly pulled gleam-

MACKINAW FROM ROUND ISLAND.

ing hatchets from beneath their blankets and began a massacre of the garrison; but, hearing that a strong British force was approaching, the Indians abandoned the fort and fled.

This fort came into the possession of the United States in 1796, when the North-

FORT MACKINAW.

western posts were given up by the British in compliance with the treaty of peace in 1783. The fortification called Fort Holmes, on the high southwest bluff of the island, was garrisoned in 1812 by a small force of Americans, under the command of Lieut. Porter Hancks, of the United States artillery.

It was supported by the higher ground in the rear, on which was a stockade, defended by two block-houses, each mounting a brass 6-pounder. It was isolated from the haunts of men more than half the year by barriers of ice and snow, and exposed to attacks by the British and Indians at Fort St. Joseph, on an island 40 miles northeast from Mackinaw, then commanded by Capt. Charles Roberts. When Sir Isaac Brock, governor of Upper Canada, received at Fort George, on the Niagara River, from British spies, notice of the declaration of war, he despatched an express to Roberts, ordering him to attack Mackinaw immediately. He was directed to summon to his assistance the neighboring Indians, and to ask the aid of the employés of the Northwestern Fur Company. On the morning of July 16 Roberts embarked with a strong, motley force of whites and Indians, in boats, bateaux, and canoes, with two 6-pounders, and convoyed by the brig *Caledonia*, belonging to the Northwestern Fur Company, loaded with provisions and stores. Hancks, suspicious of mischief, sent Captain Daurman to St. Joseph, to observe the temper and disposition of the British there. On his way he met the hostile flotilla, and was made a prisoner. News of the declaration of war had not reached the far-off post of Mackinaw. The overwhelming force under Roberts landed, and took possession of the fort and island. The summons to surrender was the first intimation that Hancks had of the declaration of war. The Indians were ready to massacre the whole garrison if any resistance were made. The post was surrendered without firing a gun.

In the spring of 1814 the Americans planned a land and naval expedition for its recapture. A small squadron was placed at the disposal of Commander St. Clair, and a land force was placed under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Croghan. They left Detroit at the beginning of July and started for Mackinaw. The force of the Americans was too small to effect a capture, and the enterprise was abandoned. Some vessels cruised in those waters for a time. The expedition returned to Detroit in August, and no further military movements were undertaken in the Northwest, excepting a raid by Gen. Duncan McArthur (*q. v.*).

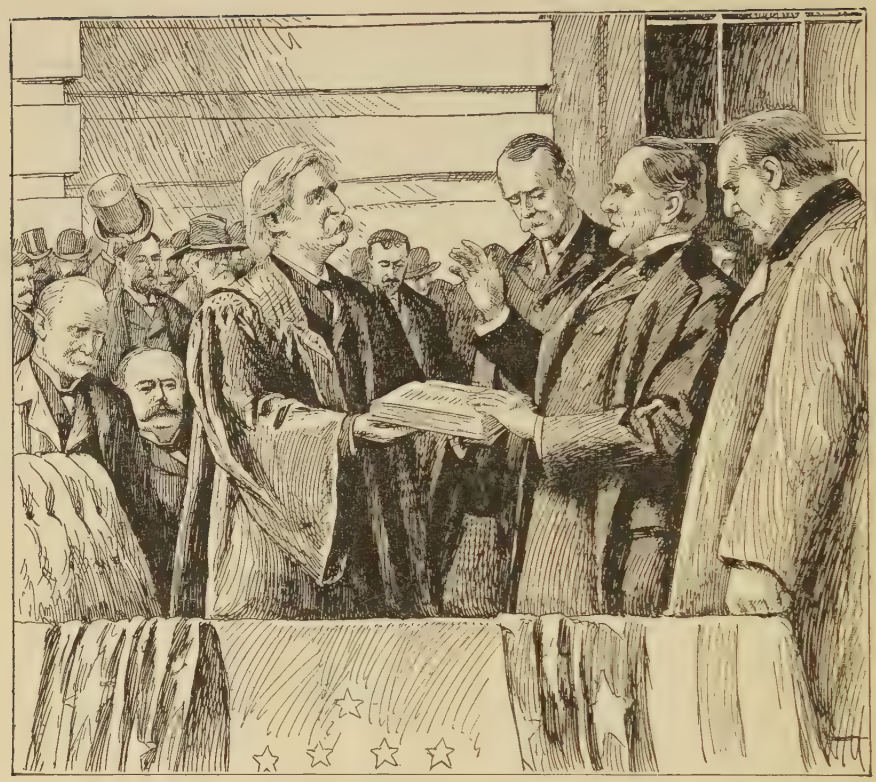
McKinley, John, jurist; born in Culpeper county, Va., May 1, 1780; admitted

to the bar of Kentucky in 1801; removed to Huntsville, Ala.; was United States Senator in 1826–31; Representative in Congress in 1833–35. President Van Buren appointed him justice of the United States Supreme Court in 1837, which office he held until his death, in Louisville, Ky., July 19, 1852.

McKINLEY, WILLIAM

McKinley, WILLIAM, twenty-fifth President of the United States, March 4, 1897, to Sept. 14, 1901; Republican; born in Niles, O., Jan. 29, 1843, and was educated at the Poland Academy. When sixteen years old he went to the Allegheny College at Meadville, Pa., and leaving there when eighteen years old, he taught a district school in Ohio for a time. He answered the first call for troops, and in June, 1861, enlisted in the 23d Ohio Infantry. Each of his promotions in the army was for "bravery on the field," and he was successively sergeant, second and first lieutenant, captain, and at the close of the war he was given a brevet as major. He then began the study of law in the office of Judge C. E. Glidden, in Poland; attended the law school at Albany for a year and a half; and was admitted to the bar in Canton, O., 1867. He took naturally to politics, and was, in 1869, elected prosecuting attorney. During the next few years he became noted as a platform speaker. In 1876 he was elected to Congress as a Republican, and served seven terms. His fourth election was contested and his Democratic opponent seated. In 1890 his name became widely known in connection with a high-tariff bill. The same year he was defeated for Congress, but in 1891 was elected gov-

BIRTHPLACE OF WILLIAM McKINLEY



FIRST INAUGURATION OF WILLIAM McKINLEY.

ernor of Ohio, and in 1893 was re-elected by a majority of 80,000. He was now known as a leading exponent of protection, and in 1888 and 1892 his name was presented as a candidate for the Presidency to the Republican National Convention. In 1896 he became the party candidate for that office.

The campaign which resulted in his election was a memorable one. For several previous campaigns the leading issue had been the tariff. It was generally thought that it would be so in 1896, but when the Republican convention met in St. Louis on June 16, 1896, it was found that the money question was paramount. When the committee on resolutions reported in favor of maintaining the gold standard of currency until international bimetallism could be secured, Senator Teller, a delegate from Colorado, led a bolt of the Silver delegates, and twenty-two of them, representing five Western States, left the convention. After their withdrawal William McKinley, of Ohio, and Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey, were selected to head the national ticket.

The Democratic convention was held in Chicago, July 7–11. In spite of the protests of Eastern Democrats, a platform was adopted declaring for the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. WILLIAM J. BRYAN (*q. v.*), of Nebraska, who made a thrilling address to the delegates, closing with the words: "We shall answer to their demand for a gold standard by saying to them, you shall not press down upon the brow of labor this crown of thorns, you shall not crucify mankind upon a cross of gold," was selected as candidate for President, and Arthur B. Sewall, of Maine, for Vice-President.

The People's party or Populist convention was held in St. Louis, July 22–25. Bryan was endorsed for President, but Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, was nominated for Vice-President, the Populists believing that Sewall would withdraw in his favor, in view of their endorsement of Bryan. Sewall did not withdraw, and the anger this caused did much to offset the fusion on the head of the ticket. A so-called Silver convention met in St. Louis at the same time and endorsed Bryan and Sewall.

When the Democratic delegates from the East returned, many of them openly repudiated the Silver platform and announced their intention of voting for McKinley. Gradually, however, there began a movement for the formation of a new party, and on Sept. 2, there met in Indianapolis a convention of "Gold Democrats." This convention nominated Gen. J. M. Palmer, of Illinois, for President, and Gen. S. B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. The convention declared for the single gold standard.

With affairs in this condition the election resolved itself into a struggle between the East and the West. Throughout the East party lines were forgotten, and New York City, formerly a Democratic stronghold, became a hot-bed of Republicanism, the sound-money parade in that city during September being a sight not easily forgotten. Two leading features of the campaign were the speech-making tour of Candidate Bryan and the speeches made by Candidate McKinley to thousands of people who went to Canton to visit him. Bryan made over 475 addresses in twenty-nine States, while McKinley addressed over 150,000 excursionists.

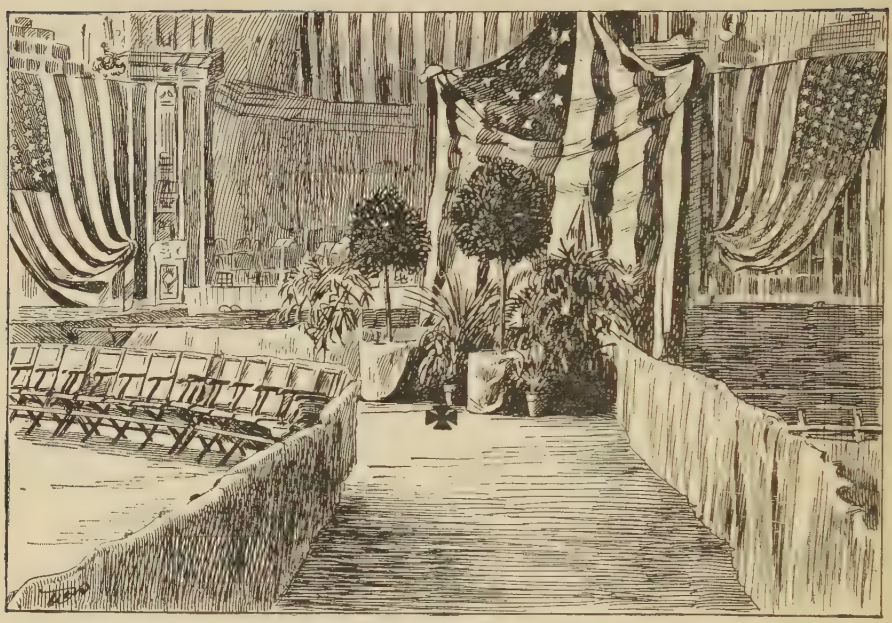
McKinley received 271 electoral votes out of 447, and his popular plurality was nearly 850,000. The victory was regarded rather as a triumph over the theory of free-silver coinage than as a partisan success.

The entire four years of President McKinley's first administration were history-making years, and the problems he had to face were greater and graver than those confronted by any other President since Lincoln. When war with Spain was unavoidable Congress placed $50,000,000 at the disposal of the President, upon his simple request, a response of confidence and faith in the President which seemed natural to Americans, but which created amazement abroad. During the war the public acts of the President resulted in the burying forever of all sectional feeling throughout the country. The complications that followed victory, the problems met and overcome in the extension of our territory in the Philippines, the West Indies, and Samoa could not be foreseen, but the President met them one by one, acting always within the law, and under the authority of Congress whenever possible, and solved them to the satisfaction of the people of the United States, and with the respect of other nations.

Long before the meeting of the Republican convention in 1900, McKinley's renomination was assured, and his re-election was as certain as almost any future event in politics.

In the campaign of 1900 there were eight Presidential tickets in the field, viz.: Republican, William McKinley and Theodore Roosevelt; Democratic-Populist, William J. Bryan and Adlai E. Stevenson; Prohibition, John G. Woolley and Henry B. Metcalf; Middle-of-the-road, or Anti-fusion People's party, Wharton Barker and Ignatius Donnelly; Social Democratic, Eugene V. Debs and Job Harriman; Social Labor, Joseph F. Malloney and Valentine Remmel; United Christian party, J. F. R. Leonard and John G. Woolley; and the Union Reform, Seth H. Ellis and Samuel T. Nicholas. The total popular vote was 13,969,770, of which the Republican candidates received 7,206,677 and the Democratic-Populist 6,379,397. The Republican candidates received 849,455 popular votes over the Democratic-Populist, and 446,718 over all candidates. Of the electoral vote the Republican candidates received 292 and the Democratic-Populist 155, giving the former a majority of 137. On his second inauguration President McKinley reappointed his entire cabinet. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

For the leading events in President McKinley's administration see ACQUISITION OF TERRITORY; ANNEXED TERRITORY, STATUS OF; BRYAN, WILLIAM JENNINGS; CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY; CUBA; IMPERIALISM; PHILIPPINE ISLANDS; PORTO RICO; SPAIN; UNITED STATES.



INTERIOR OF THE TEMPLE OF MUSIC.
(The × marks the spot where McKinley stood when shot.)

Shortly after his second inauguration the President, accompanied by Mrs. McKinley, the members of the cabinet, and their wives, made an extended tour through the South and West and the Pacific coast. The party was received with such enthusiasm and demonstrations of genuine respect and affection as to make the journey one continuous triumph. Unfortunately a portion of the trip had to be abandoned in consequence of the serious illness of Mrs. McKinley when the party reached San Francisco. This necessitated an earlier return to Washington than had been expected, and with rest and care Mrs. McKinley was restored to health.

The President had accepted an invitation to attend the Pan-American Exposition on "President's Day," Sept. 5. Accompanied by Mrs. McKinley, he spent the entire day at the fair, in the course of which he made an address on the prosperity of the country, ending with a prayer for prosperity and peace to all nations.

On Friday the President again visited the exposition, and in the afternoon held a reception at the Temple of Music, with Mr. John G. Milburn, president of the exposition, at his right hand. Among the throng filing past the President walked a medium-sized young man, brown-haired and smooth-shaven, apparently a respectable mechanic. His right hand was swathed in a handkerchief, and as he approached he held it close to the back of the man in front of him, as if he wished to conceal it as much as possible. As his turn came he stopped in front of the President. Mr. McKinley smiled and extended his hand. As he did so two revolver shots rang out sharply above the subdued murmur of voices and the shuffling of feet; the assassin had discharged a concealed revolver through the handkerchief wrapped about his hand.

As the smoke cleared, it became evident that the shots had taken effect. The President was seen to stagger, while a look of bewilderment passed over his face. Then he sank back, half fainting, into the arms of Secretary Cortelyou. The assassin, Leon Czolgosz, a Polish anarchist, was seized by

the bystanders and was with difficulty rescued from immediate death by the police and secret service men.

The President was taken to the emergency hospital on the exposition grounds and immediately operated upon. For some days the reports of his condition were so favorable that the Vice-President and members of the cabinet, who had been summoned to Buffalo, felt at liberty to return to their homes, but on Friday the President grew weaker and weaker, and breathed his last on Saturday, Sept. 14, 1901, at a quarter past two o'clock in the morning. The body lay in state in the City Hall, Buffalo, and in the Capitol at Washington. The last ceremonies were held in the Methodist Church at Canton, O.

The President's Address at the Pan-American Exposition, Sept. 5, 1901. (The italicized headings to the various subdivisions of this address are not in the original, but have been added to make reference easy.)

President Milburn, Director-General Buchanan, Commissioners, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I am glad to be again in the city of Buffalo and exchange greetings with her people, to whose generous hospitality I am not a stranger and with whose goodwill I have been repeatedly and signally honored. To-day I have additional satisfaction in meeting and giving welcome to the foreign representatives assembled here, whose presence and participation in this exposition have contributed in so marked a degree to its interest and success. To the commissioners of the dominion of Canada and the British colonies, the French colonies, the republics of Mexico and of Central and South America, and the commissioners of Cuba and Porto Rico, who share with us in this undertaking, we give the hand of fellowship and felicitate with them upon the triumphs of art, science, education, and manufactures which the old has bequeathed to the new century.

Expositions are time-keepers of progress. They record the world's advancement. They stimulate the energy, enterprise, and intellect of the people, and quicken human genius. They go into the home. They broaden and brighten the daily life of the people. They open mighty storehouses of information to the student. Every exposition, great or small, has helped to some onward step. Comparison of ideas is always educational, and as such instructs the brain and hand of man. Friendly rivalry follows, which is the spur to industrial improvement, the inspiration to useful invention and to high endeavor in all departments of human activity. It exacts a study of the wants, comforts, and even the whims of the people, and recognizes the efficacy of high quality and new prices to win their favor. The quest for trade is an incentive to men of business to devise, invent, improve, and economize in the cost of production. Business life, whether among ourselves or with other people, is ever a sharp struggle for success. It will be none the less so in the future. Without competition we would be clinging to the clumsy and antiquated processes of farming and manufacture and the methods of business of long ago, and the twentieth would be no further advanced than the eighteenth century. But though commercial competitors we are, commercial enemies we must not be.

International Assets.—The Pan-American Exposition has done its work thoroughly, presenting in its exhibits evidences of the highest skill, and illustrating the progress of the human family in the Western Hemisphere. This portion of the earth has no cause for humiliation for the part it has performed in the march of civilization. It has not accomplished everything; far from it. It has simply done its best, and without vanity or boastfulness, and recognizing the manifold achievements of others, it invites the friendly rivalry of all the powers in the peaceful pursuits of trade and commerce, and will co-operate with all in advancing the highest and best interests of humanity. The wisdom and energy of all the nations are none too great for the world's work. The success of art, science, industry, and invention is an international asset and a common glory.

After all, how near one to the other is every part of the world! Modern inventors have brought into close relation widely separated peoples and made them better acquainted. Geographic and politi-

cal divisions will continue to exist, but distances have been effaced. Swift ships and fast trains are becoming cosmopolitan. They invade fields which a few years ago were impenetrable. The world's products are exchanged as never before, and with increasing transportation facilities come increasing knowledge and larger trade. Prices are fixed with mathematical precision by supply and demand. The world's selling prices are regulated by market and crop reports. We travel greater distances in a shorter space of time and with more ease than was ever dreamed of by the fathers. Isolation is no longer possible or desirable. The same important news is read, though in different languages, the same day in all Christendom. The telegraph keeps us advised of what is occurring everywhere, and the press foreshadows, with more or less accuracy, the plans and purposes of the nations. Market prices of products and of securities are hourly known in every commercial mart, and the investments of the people extend beyond their own national boundaries into the remotest parts of the earth. Vast transactions are conducted and international exchanges are made by the tick of the cable. Every event of interest is immediately bulletined. The quick gathering and transmission of news, like rapid transit, are of recent origin, and are only made possible by the genius of the inventor and the courage of the investor. It took a special messenger of the government, with every facility known at the time for rapid travel, nineteen days to go from the city of Washington to New Orleans with a message to General Jackson that the war with England had ceased and a treaty of peace had been signed. How different now!

Annihilation of Distance.—We reached General Miles in Porto Rico by cable, and he was able through the military telegraph to stop his army on the firing-line with the message that the United States and Spain had signed a protocol suspending hostilities. We knew almost instantly of the first shot fired at Santiago, and the subsequent surrender of the Spanish forces was known at Washington within less than an hour of its consummation. The first ship of Cervera's fleet had hardly emerged from that historic harbor when the fact was flashed to our capital, and the swift destruction that followed was announced immediately through the wonderful medium of telegraphy. So accustomed are we to safe and easy communication with distant lands that its temporary interruption even in ordinary times results in loss and inconvenience. We shall never forget the days of anxious waiting and awful suspense when no information was permitted to be sent from Peking, and the diplomatic representatives of the nations in China, cut off from all communication inside and outside of the walled capital, were surrounded by an angry and misguided mob that threatened their lives; nor the joy that thrilled the world when a single message from the government of the United States brought through our minister the first news of the safety of the besieged diplomats.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century there was not a mile of steam railroad on the globe. Now there are enough miles to make its circuit many times. Then there was not a line of electric telegraph; now we have a vast mileage traversing all lands and all seas. God and man have linked the nations together. No nation can longer be indifferent to any other. And as we are brought more and more in touch with each other the less occasion is there for misunderstanding, and the stronger the disposition, when we have differences, to adjust them in the court of arbitration, which is the noblest forum for the settlement of international disputes.

The Nation's Great Prosperity.—My fellow-citizens, trade statistics indicate that this country is in a state of unexampled prosperity. The figures are almost appalling. They show that we are utilizing our fields and forests and mines, and that we are furnishing profitable employment to the millions of working-men throughout the United States, bringing comfort and happiness to their homes and making it possible to lay by savings for old age and disability. That all the people are participating in this great prosperity is seen in every American community and shown by the enormous and unprecedented deposits in our savings-banks. Our duty is the care and security of these deposits, and their safe investment

demands the highest integrity and the best business capacity of those in charge of these depositories of the people's earnings.

We have a vast and intricate business, built up through years of toil and struggle, in which every part of the country has its stake, which will not permit of either neglect or of undue selfishness. No narrow, sordid policy will subserve it. The greatest skill and wisdom on the part of manufacturers and producers will be required to hold and increase it. Our industrial enterprises, which have grown to such great proportions, affect the homes and occupations of the people and the welfare of the country. Our capacity to produce has developed so enormously and our products have so multiplied that the problem of more markets requires our urgent and immediate attention. Only a broad and enlightened policy will keep what we have. No other policy will get more. In these times of marvellous business energy and gain, we ought to be looking to the future, strengthening the weak places in our industrial and commercial systems, that we may be ready for any storm or strain.

Reciprocity Favored.—By sensible trade arrangements which will not interrupt our home production, we shall extend the outlets for our increasing surplus. A system which provides a mutual exchange of commodities is manifestly essential to the continued and healthful growth of our export trade. We must not repose in fancied security that we can forever sell everything and buy little or nothing. If such a thing were possible it would not be best for us or for those with whom we deal. We should take from our customers such of their products as we can use without harm to our industries and labor. Reciprocity is the natural outgrowth of our wonderful industrial development under the domestic policy now firmly established. What we produce beyond our domestic consumption must have a vent abroad. The excess must be relieved through a foreign outlet, and we should sell everywhere we can buy and wherever the buying will enlarge our sales and productions, and thereby make a greater demand for home labor.

The period of exclusiveness is past. The expansion of our trade and commerce is the pressing problem. Commercial wars are unprofitable. A policy of good-will and friendly trade relations will prevent reprisals. Reciprocity treaties are in harmony with the spirit of the times; measures of retaliation are not.

If, perchance, some of our tariffs are no longer needed for revenue or to encourage and protect our industries at home, why should they not be employed to extend and promote our markets abroad? Then, too, we have inadequate steamship service. New lines of steamers have already been put in commission between the Pacific coast ports of the United States and those on the western coasts of Mexico and Central and South America. These should be followed up with direct steamship lines between the eastern coast of the United States and South American ports. One of the needs of the times is direct commercial lines from our vast fields of production to the fields of consumption that we have but barely touched. Next in advantage to having the thing to sell is to have the convenience to carry it to the buyer. We must encourage our merchant marine. We must have more ships. They must be under the American flag, built and manned and owned by Americans. These will not only be profitable in a commercial sense; they will be messengers of peace and amity wherever they go.

Isthmian Canal and Pacific Cable.—We must build the isthmian canal, which will unite the two oceans, and give a straight line of water communication with the western coasts of Central and South America and Mexico. The construction of a Pacific cable cannot be longer postponed.

In the furtherance of these objects of national interest and concern you are performing an important part. This exposition would have touched the heart of that American statesman whose mind was ever alert and thought ever constant for a larger commerce and a truer fraternity of the republics of the New World. His broad American spirit is felt and manifested here. He needs no identification to an assemblage of Americans anywhere, for the name of Blaine is inseparately associated with the Pan-American movement which finds this practical and substantial

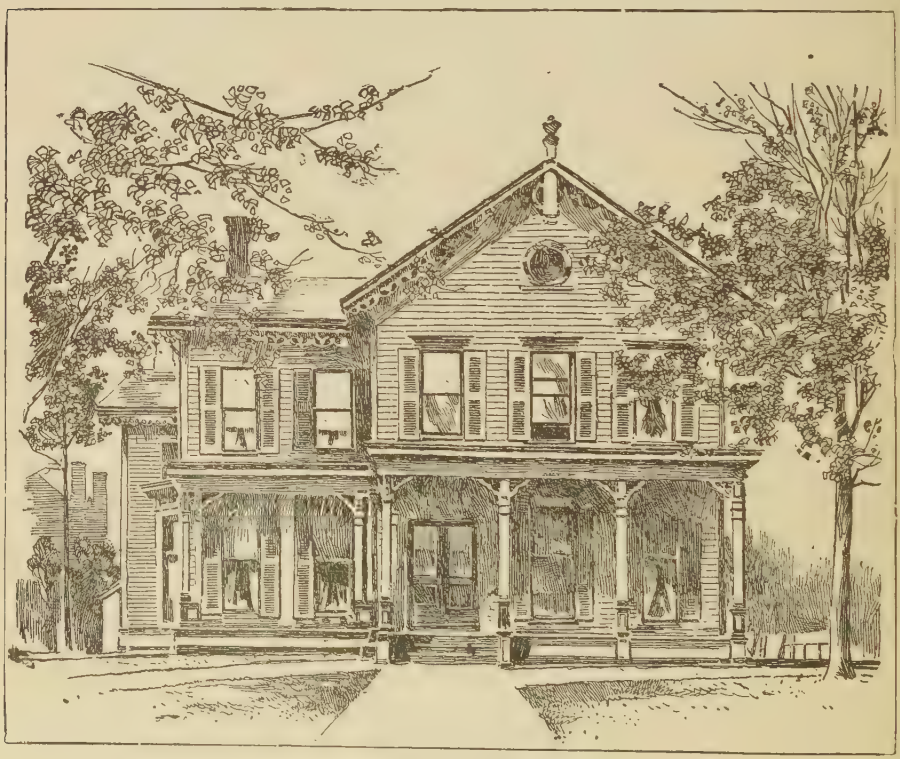
expression, and which we all hope will be firmly advanced by the Pan-American Congress that assembles this autumn in the capital of Mexico. The good work will go on. It cannot be stopped. These buildings will disappear; this creation of art and beauty and industry will perish from sight, but their influence will remain to

> Make it live beyond its too short living
> With praises and thanksgiving.

The Victories of Peace.—Who can tell the new thoughts that have been awakened, the ambitions fired, and the high achievements that will be wrought through this exposition? Gentlemen: Let us ever remember that our interest is in concord, not conflict, and that our real eminence rests in the victories of peace, not those of war. We hope that all who are represented here may be moved to higher and nobler effort for their own and the world's good, and that out of this city may come, not only greater commerce and trade for us all, but, more essential than these, relations of mutual respect, confidence, and friendship, which will deepen and endure.

Our earnest prayer is that God will graciously vouchsafe prosperity, happiness, and peace to all our neighbors, and like blessings to all the peoples and powers of earth.

The Conclusion of President McKinley's First Inaugural Address, Delivered in Washington, March 4, 1897.—In conclusion, I congratulate the country upon the fraternal spirit of the people and the manifestations of good-will everywhere so apparent. The recent election not only most fortunately demonstrated the obliteration of sectional or geographical lines, but to some extent also the prejudices which for years have distracted our councils and marred our true greatness as a



HOME OF WILLIAM McKINLEY, CANTON, O.

nation. The triumph of the people, whose verdict is carried into effect to-day, is not the triumph of one section, nor wholly of one party, but of all sections and all the people. The North and the South no longer divide on the old lines, but upon principles and policies, and in this fact surely every lover of the country can find cause for true felicitation. Let us rejoice in and cultivate this spirit; it is ennobling, and will be both a gain and blessing to our beloved country. It will be my constant aim to do nothing, and permit nothing to be done, that will arrest or disturb this growing sentiment of unity and co-operation, this revival of esteem and affiliation which now animates so many thousands in both the old antagonistic sections, but I shall cheerfully do everything possible to promote and increase it.

To keep the obligations which I have reverently taken before the Lord Most High will be my single purpose—my constant prayer; and I shall confidently rely upon the forbearance and assistance of all the people in the discharge of my solemn responsibilities.

Second Letter of Acceptance.—The following letter, addressed to the chairman of the notification committee of the Republican National Convention, is one of the most important papers in the political history of the country. It not only considers with much detail and clearness the engrossing interests of a most eventful epoch, but it discloses without reserve the policy and intentions of President McKinley's administration. (The italicized headings to the various subdivisions of this letter are not in the original, but have been added to make reference easy.)

EXECUTIVE MANSION, WASHINGTON, D. C.,
Sept. 8, 1900.

The Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge, Chairman Notification Committee:

MY DEAR SIR,—The nomination of the Republican National Convention of June 19, 1900, for the office of the President of the United States, which, as the official representative of the convention, you have conveyed to me, is accepted. I have carefully examined the platform adopted and give to it my hearty approval. Upon the great issue of the last national election it is clear. It upholds the gold standard, and indorses the legislation of the present Congress by which that standard has been effectively strengthened.

The stability of our national currency is therefore secure so long as those who adhere to this platform are kept in control of the government. In the first battle — that of 1896 — the friends of the gold standard and of sound currency were triumphant, and the country is enjoying the fruits of that victory. Our antagonists, however, are not satisfied. They compel us to a second battle upon the same lines on which the first was fought and won. While regretting the reopening of this question, which can only disturb the present satisfactory financial condition of the government and visit uncertainty upon our great business enterprises, we accept the issue and again invite the sound-money forces to join in winning another, and we hope a permanent, triumph for an honest financial system which will continue inviolable the public faith.

Policy of the Silver Parties. — As in 1896, the three silver parties are united under the same leader who, immediately after the election of that year, in an address to the bimetallists, said:

"The friends of bimetallism have not been vanquished; they have simply been overcome. They believe that the gold standard is a conspiracy of the money-changers against the welfare of the human race, and they will continue the warfare against it."

The policy thus proclaimed has been accepted and confirmed by these parties. The Silver Democratic platform of 1900 continues the warfare against the so-called gold conspiracy when it expressly says:

"We reiterate the demand of that (the Chicago) platform of 1896 for an American financial system made by the American people for themselves, which shall restore and maintain a bimetallic price level, and as part of such system the immediate restoration of the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at the present ratio of 16 to 1, without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation."

So the issue is presented. It will be

noted that the demand is for the immediate restoration of the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1. If another issue is paramount, this is immediate. It will admit of no delay and will suffer no postponement.

Turning to the other associated parties we find in the Populist national platform, adopted at Sioux Falls, S. D., May 10, 1900, the following declaration:

"We pledge anew the People's party never to cease the agitation until this financial conspiracy is blotted from the statute book, the Lincoln greenback restored, the bonds all paid, and all corporation money forever retired. We reaffirm the demand for the reopening of the mints of the United States for the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1, the immediate increase in the volume of silver coins and certificates thus created to be substituted, dollar for dollar, for the bank-notes issued by private corporations under special privilege granted by law of March 14, 1900, and prior national banking laws."

The platform of the Silver party, adopted at Kansas City, July 6, 1900, makes the following announcement:

"We declare it to be our intention to lend our efforts to the repeal of this currency law, which not only repudiates the ancient and time-honored principles of the American people before the Constitution was adopted, but is violative of the principles of the Constitution itself; and we shall not cease our efforts until there has been established in its place a monetary system based upon the free and unlimited coinage of silver and gold into money at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1 by the independent action of the United States, under which system all paper money shall be issued by the government, and all such money coined or issued shall be a full legal tender in payment of all debts, public and private, without exception."

In all three platforms these parties announce that their efforts shall be unceasing until the gold act shall be blotted from the statute books and the free and unlimited coinage of silver at 16 to 1 shall take its place.

All the Issues Important. — The relative importance of the issues I do not stop to discuss. All of them are important. Whichever party is successful will be bound in conscience to carry into administration and legislation its several declarations and doctrines. One declaration will be as obligatory as another, but all are not immediate. It is not possible that these parties would treat the doctrine of 16 to 1, the immediate realization of which is demanded by their several platforms, as void and inoperative in the event that they shall be clothed with power. Otherwise their profession of faith is insincere. It is therefore the imperative business of those opposed to this financial heresy to prevent the triumph of the parties whose union is only assured by adherence to the silver issue. Will the American people, through indifference or fancied security, hazard the overthrow of the wise financial legislation of the past year and revive the danger of the silver standard with all of the inevitable evils of shattered confidence and general disaster which justly alarmed and aroused them in 1896?

The Chicago platform of 1896 is reaffirmed in its entirety by the Kansas City convention. Nothing has been omitted or recalled; so that all the perils then threatened are presented anew with the added force of a deliberate reaffirmation. Four years ago the people refused to place the seal of their approval upon these dangerous and revolutionary policies, and this year they will not fail to record again their earnest dissent.

The Work of Congress.—The Republican party remains faithful to its principles of a tariff which supplies sufficient revenues for the government and adequate protection to our enterprises and producers, and of reciprocity which opens foreign markets to the fruits of American labor, and furnishes new channels through which to market the surplus of American farms. The time-honored principles of protection and reciprocity were the first pledges of Republican victory to be written into public law.

The present Congress has given to Alaska a territorial government for which it had waited more than a quarter of a century; has established a representative government in Hawaii; has enacted bills for the most liberal treatment of the

pensioners and their widows; has revived the free homestead policy. In its great financial law it provided for the establishment of banks of issue with a capital of $25,000 for the benefit of villages and rural communities, and bringing the opportunity for profitable business in banking within the reach of moderate capital. Many are already availing themselves of this privilege.

Prosperity of the Country.—During the past year more than $19,000,000 United States bonds have been paid from the surplus revenues of the treasury, and in addition $25,000,000 2 per cents. matured, called by the government, are in process of payment. Pacific Railroad bonds issued by the government in aid of the roads in the sum of nearly $44,000,000 have been paid since Dec. 31, 1897. The treasury balance is in satisfactory condition, showing on Sept. 1 $135,419,000, in addition to the $150,000,000 gold reserve held in the treasury. The government's relations with the Pacific railroads have been substantially closed, $124,421,000 being received from these roads, the greater part in cash, and the remainder with ample securities for payments deferred.

Instead of diminishing, as was predicted four years ago, the volume of our currency is greater per capita than it has ever been. It was $21.10 in 1896. It had increased to $26.25 on July 1, 1900, and $26.85 on Sept. 1, 1900. Our total money on July 1, 1896, was $1,506,434,966; on July 1, 1900, it was $2,062,425,490, and $2,096,683,042 on Sept. 1, 1900.

Our industrial and agricultural conditions are more promising than they have been for many years; probably more so than they have ever been. Prosperity abounds everywhere throughout the republic. I rejoice that the Southern as well as the Northern States are enjoying a full share of these improved national conditions, and that all are contributing so largely to our remarkable industrial development. The money-lender receives lower rewards for his capital than if it were invested in active business. The rates of interest are lower than they have ever been in this country, while those things which are produced on the farm and in the workshop, and the labor producing them, have advanced in value.

Growth of Foreign Trade.—Our foreign trade shows a satisfactory and increasing growth. The amount of our exports for the year 1900 over those of the exceptionally prosperous year of 1899 was about $500,000 for every day of the year, and these sums have gone into the homes and enterprises of the people. There has been an increase of over $50,000,000 in the exports of agricultural products; $92,692,220 in manufactures, and in the products of the mines of over $10,000,000. Our trade balances cannot fail to give satisfaction to the people of the country. In 1898 we sold abroad $615,432,676 of products more than we bought abroad; in 1899, $529,874,813, and in 1900, $544,471,701, making during the three years a total balance in our favor of $1,689,779,190 — nearly five times the balance of trade in our favor for the whole period of 108 years, from 1790 to June 30, 1897, inclusive.

Four hundred and thirty-six million dollars of gold have been added to the gold stock of the United States since July 1, 1896. The law of March 14, 1900, authorized the refunding into 2 per cent. bonds of that part of the public debt represented by the 3 per cents. due in 1908, the 4 per cents. due in 1907, and the 5 per cents. due in 1904, aggregating $840,000,000. More than one-third of the sum of these bonds was refunded in the first three months after the passage of the act, and on Sept. 1 the sum had been increased more than $33,000,000, making in all $330,578,050, resulting in a net saving of over $8,379,520. The ordinary receipts of the government for the fiscal year 1900 were $79,527,060 in excess of its expenditures.

Decreased Expenditures.—While our receipts, both from customs and internal revenue, have been greatly increased, our expenditures have been decreasing. Civil and miscellaneous expenses for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1900, were nearly $14,000,000 less than in 1899, while on the war account there is a decrease of more than $95,000,000. There were required $8,000,000 less to support the navy this year than last, and the expenditures on account of Indians were nearly $2,750,000 less than in 1899. The only two items of increase in the public expenses of 1900 over 1899 are for pensions and

interest on the public debt. For 1890 we expended for pensions $139,394,929, and for the fiscal year 1900 our payments on this account amounted to $140,877,316. The net increase of interest on the public debt of 1900 over 1899 required by the war loan was $263,408.25. While Congress authorized the government to make a war loan of $400,000,000 at the beginning of the war with Spain, only $200,000,000 of bonds were issued, bearing 3 per cent. interest, which were promptly and patriotically taken by our citizens.

Unless something unforeseen occurs to reduce our revenues or increase our expenditures, the Congress at its next session should reduce taxation very materially.

Five years ago we were selling government bonds bearing as high as 5 per cent. interest. Now we are redeeming them with a bond at par bearing 2 per cent. interest. We are selling our surplus products and lending our surplus money to Europe. One result of our selling to other nations so much more than we have bought from them during the past three years is a radical improvement of our financial relations. The great amounts of capital which have been borrowed of Europe for our rapid material development have remained a constant drain upon our resources for interest and dividends, and made our money markets liable to constant disturbances by calls for payment or heavy sales of our securities whenever moneyed stringency or panic occurred abroad. We have now been paying these debts and bringing home many of our securities and establishing countervailing credits abroad by our loans and placing ourselves upon a sure foundation of financial independence.

Action in the Boer War.—In the unfortunate contest between Great Britain and the Boer states of South Africa, the United States has maintained an attitude of neutrality in accordance with its well-known traditional policy. It did not hesitate, however, when requested by the governments of the South African republics, to exercise its good offices for a cessation of hostilities. It is to be observed that while the South African republics made like request of other powers, the United States was the only one which complied. The British government declined to accept the intervention of any power.

Need of American Shipping.—Ninety-one per cent. of our exports and imports are now carried by foreign ships. For ocean transportation we pay annually to foreign ship-owners over $165,000,000. We ought to own the ships for our carrying-trade with the world, and we ought to build them in American ship-yards and man them with American sailors. Our own citizens should receive the transportation charges now paid to foreigners. I have called the attention of Congress to this subject in my several annual messages. In that of Dec. 6, 1897, I said:

"Most desirable from every stand-point of national interest and patriotism is the effort to extend our foreign commerce. To this end our merchant marine should be improved and enlarged. We should do our full share of the carrying-trade of the world. We do not do it now. We should be the laggard no longer."

In my message of Dec. 5, 1899, I said:

"Our national development will be one-sided and unsatisfactory so long as the remarkable growth of our inland industries remains unaccompanied by progress on the seas. There is no lack of constitutional authority for legislation which shall give to the country maritime strength commensurate with its industrial achievements and with its rank among the nations of the earth.

"The past year has recorded exceptional activity in our ship-yards, and the promises of continual prosperity in ship-building are abundant. Advanced legislation for the protection of our seamen has been enacted. Our coast-trade under regulations wisely framed at the beginning of the government and since shows results for the past fiscal year unequalled in our records or those of any other power. We shall fail to realize our opportunities, however, if we complacently regard only matters at home and blind ourselves to the necessity of securing our share in the valuable carrying-trade of the world."

I now reiterate these views.

The Inter-Oceanic Canal.—A subject of immediate importance to our country is the completion of a great waterway of commerce between the Atlantic and Pacific. The construction of a maritime ca-

nal is now more than ever indispensable to that intimate and ready communication between our Eastern and Western seaports demanded by the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands and the expansion of our influence and trade in the Pacific.

Our national policy more imperatively than ever calls for its completion and control by this government, and it is believed that the next session of Congress, after receiving the full report of the commission appointed under the act approved March 3, 1899, will make provisions for the sure accomplishment of this great work.

Trusts and Labor. — Combinations of capital which control the market in commodities necessary to the general use of the people, by suppressing natural and ordinary competition, thus enhancing prices to the general consumer, are obnoxious to the common law and the public welfare. They are dangerous conspiracies against the public good and should be made the subject of prohibitory or penal legislation. Publicity will be a helpful influence to check the evil. Uniformity of legislation in the several States should be secured. Discrimination between what is injurious and what is useful and necessary in business operations is essential to the wise and effective treatment of this subject. Honest co-operation of capital is necessary to meet new business conditions and extend our rapidly increasing foreign trade, but conspiracies and combinations intended to restrict business, create monopolies, and control prices should be effectively restrained.

The best service which can be rendered to labor is to afford it an opportunity for steady and remunerative employment, and give it every encouragement for advancement. The policy that subserves this end is the true American policy. The past three years have been more satisfactory to American workingmen than many preceding years. Any change of the present industrial or financial policy of the government would be disastrous to their highest interests. With prosperity at home and an increasing foreign market for American products, employment should continue to wait upon labor, and with the present gold standard the workingman is secured against payment for his labor in a depreciated currency. For labor, a short day is better than a short dollar; one will lighten the burdens; the other lessens the rewards of toil. The one will promote contentment and independence; the other penury and want. The wages of labor should be adequate to keep the home in comfort, educate the children, and, with thrift and economy, lay something by for the days of infirmity and old age.

Civil Service Reform.—Practical civil service reform has always had the support or encouragement of the Republican party. The future of the merit system is safe in its hands. During the present administration, as occasions have arisen for modification or amendment in the existing civil service law and rules, they have been made. Important amendments were promulgated by executive order under date of May 29, 1899, having for their principal purpose the exception from competitive examination of certain places involving fiduciary responsibilities or duties of a strictly confidential, scientific, or executive character, which it was thought might better be filled either by non-competitive examination or by other tests of fitness in the discretion of the appointing officer. It is gratifying that the experience of more than a year has vindicated these changes, in the marked improvement of the public service. The merit system, as far as practicable, is made the basis for appointments to office in our new territory.

Pensions should be Liberal.—The American people are profoundly grateful to the soldiers, sailors, and marines who have in every time of conflict fought their country's battles and defended its honor. The survivors and the widows and orphans of those who have fallen are justly entitled to receive the generous and considerate care of the nation. Few are now left of those who fought in the Mexican War, and while many of the veterans of the Civil War are still spared to us, their numbers are rapidly diminishing and age and infirmity are increasing their dependence. These, with the soldiers of the Spanish War, will not be neglected by their grateful countrymen. The pension laws have been liberal. They should be justly administered and will be.

Preference should be given to the soldiers, sailors, and marines, their widows and orphans, with respect to employment in the public service.

Cuba and Porto Rico.—We have been in possession of Cuba since Jan. 1, 1899. We have restored order and established domestic tranquillity. We have fed the starving, clothed the naked, and ministered to the sick. We have improved the sanitary condition of the island. We have stimulated industry, introduced public education, and taken a full and comprehensive enumeration of the inhabitants. The qualification of electors has been settled, and under it officers have been chosen for all the municipalities of Cuba. These local governments are now in operation, administered by the people. Our military establishment has been reduced from 43,000 men to less than 6,000. An election has been ordered to be held on Sept. 15, under a fair election law already tried in the municipal elections, to choose members of a constitutional convention, and the convention by the same order is to assemble on the first Monday of November to frame a constitution upon which an independent government for the island will rest. All this is a long step in the fulfilment of our sacred guarantees to the people of Cuba.

We hold Porto Rico by the same title as the Philippines. The treaty of peace which ceded us the one conveyed to us the other. Congress has given to this island a government in which the inhabitants participate, elect their own legislature, enact their own local laws, provide their own system of taxation, and in these respects have the same power and privileges enjoyed by other territories belonging to the United States, and a much larger measure of self-government than was given to the inhabitants of Louisiana under Jefferson. A district court of the United States for Porto Rico has been established and local courts have been inaugurated, all of which are in operation.

The generous treatment of the Porto Ricans accords with the most liberal thought of our own country and encourages the best aspirations of the people of the island. While they do not have instant free commercial intercourse with the United States, Congress complied with my recommendation by removing, on May 1 last, 85 per cent. of the duties and providing for the removal of the remaining 15 per cent. on March 1. 1902, or earlier, if the legislature of Porto Rico shall provide local revenues for the expenses of conducting the government.

During this intermediate period Porto Rican products coming into the United States pay a tariff of 15 per cent. of the rates under the Dingley act, and our goods going to Porto Rico pay a like rate. The duties thus paid and collected, both in Porto Rico and the United States, are paid to the government of Porto Rico; and no part thereof is taken by the national government. All of the duties from Nov. 1, 1898, to June 30, 1900, aggregating the sum of $2,250,523.21, paid at the custom houses in the United States upon Porto Rican products under the laws existing prior to the above-mentioned act of Congress, have gone into the treasury of Porto Rico to relieve the destitute and for schools and other public purposes.

In addition to this, we have expended for relief, education, and improvement of roads the sum of $1,513,084.95. The United States military force on the island has been reduced from 11,000 to 1,500, and native Porto Ricans constitute for the most part the local constabulary.

Under the new law and the inauguration of civil government there has been a gratifying revival of business. The manufactures of Porto Rico are developing; her imports are increasing, her tariff is yielding increased returns, her fields are being cultivated, free schools are being established. Notwithstanding the many embarrassments incident to a change of national conditions, she is rapidly showing the good effects of her new relations to this nation.

The Philippine Problem.—For the sake of full and intelligent understanding of the Philippine question, and to give to the people authentic information of the acts and aims of the administration, I present at some length the events of importance leading up to the present situation. The purposes of the executive are best revealed and can best be judged by what he has done and is doing. It

will be seen that the power of the government has been used for the liberty, the peace, and the prosperity of the Philippine peoples, and that force has been employed only against force which stood in the way of the realization of these ends.

On April 25, 1898, Congress declared that a state of war existed between Spain and the United States. On May 1, 1898, Admiral Dewey destroyed the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. On May 19, 1898, Major-General Merritt, United States army, was placed in command of the military expedition to Manila, and directed among other things to immediately "publish a proclamation declaring that we come not to make war upon the people of the Philippines, nor upon any part or faction among them, but to protect them in their homes, in their employments, and in their personal and religious rights. All persons who, either by active aid or by honest submission, co-operate with the United States in its efforts to give effect to this beneficent purpose will receive the reward of its support and protection."

On July 3, 1898, the Spanish fleet, in attempting to escape from Santiago Harbor, was destroyed by the American fleet, and on July 17, 1898, the Spanish garrison in the city of Santiago surrendered to the commander of the American forces.

Peace Envoys' Instructions. — Following these brilliant victories, on Aug. 12, 1898, upon the initiative of Spain, hostilities were suspended and a protocol was signed with a view to arranging terms of peace between the two governments. In pursuance thereof I appointed as commissioners the following distinguished citizens to conduct the negotiations on the part of the United States: William R. Day, of Ohio; William P. Frye, of Maine; Cushman K. Davis, of Minnesota; George Gray, of Delaware, and Whitelaw Reid, of New York. In addressing the peace commission before its departure for Paris, I said:

"It is my wish that throughout the negotiations intrusted to the commission the purpose and spirit with which the United States accepted the unwelcome necessity of war should be kept constantly in view. We took up arms only in obedience to the dictates of humanity and in the fulfilment of high public and moral obligations. We had no design of aggrandizement, and no ambition of conquest. Through the long course of repeated representations which preceded and aimed to avert the struggle and in the final arbitrament of force, this country was impelled solely by the purpose of relieving grievous wrongs and removing long-existing conditions which disturbed its tranquillity, which shocked the moral sense of mankind, and which could no longer be endured.

"It is my earnest wish that the United States, in making peace, should follow the same high rule of conduct which guided it in facing war. It should be as scrupulous and magnanimous in the concluding settlement as it was just and humane in its original action. . . . Our aim in the adjustment of peace should be directed to lasting results, and to the achievement of the common good under the demands of civilization, rather than to ambitious designs. . . .

"Without any original thought of complete or even partial acquisition, the presence and success of our arms in Manila imposes upon us obligations which we cannot disregard. The march of events rules and overrules human action. Avowing unreservedly the purpose which has animated all our effort, and still solicitous to adhere to it, we cannot be unmindful that without any desire or design on our part the war has brought us new duties and responsibilities which we must meet and discharge as becomes a great nation on whose growth and career from the beginning the Ruler of Nations has plainly written the high command and pledge of civilization."

On Oct. 28, 1898, while the peace commission was continuing its negotiations in Paris, the following additional instruction was sent:

"It is imperative upon us that as victors we should be governed only by motives which will exalt our nation. Territorial expansion should be our least concern, that we shall not shirk the moral obligations of our victory is of the greatest. It is undisputed that Spain's authority is permanently destroyed in every part of the Philippines. To leave any part in

her feeble control now would increase our difficulties and be opposed to the interests of humanity. . . . Nor can we permit Spain to transfer any of the islands to another power. Nor can we invite another power or powers to join the United States in sovereignty over them. We must either hold them or turn them back to Spain.

"Consequently, grave as are the responsibilities and unforeseen as are the difficulties which are before us, the President can see but one plain path of duty, the acceptance of the archipelago. Greater difficulties and more serious complications —administrative and international—would follow any other course. The President has given to the views of the commissioners the fullest consideration, and in reaching the conclusion above announced in the light of information communicated to the commission and to the President since your departure, he has been influenced by the single consideration of duty and humanity. The President is not unmindful of the distressed financial condition of Spain, and whatever consideration the United States may show must come from its sense of generosity and benevolence rather than from any real or technical obligation."

Again, on Nov. 13, I instructed the commission:

"From the stand-point of indemnity both the archipelagoes (Porto Rico and the Philippines) are insufficient to pay our war expenses, but aside from this do we not owe an obligation to the people of the Philippines which will not permit us to return them to the sovereignty of Spain? Could we justify ourselves in such a course or could we permit their barter to some other power? Willing or not, we have the responsibility of duty which we cannot escape. . . . The President cannot believe any division of the archipelago can bring us anything but embarrassment in the future. The trade and commercial side, as well as the indemnity for the cost of the war, are questions we might yield. They might be waived or compromised, but the questions of duty and humanity appeal to the President so strongly that he can find no appropriate answer but the one he has here marked out."

Orders to Military Commander.—The treaty of peace was concluded on Dec. 10, 1898. By its terms the archipelago known as the Philippine Islands was ceded by Spain to the United States. It was also provided that "the civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the territories hereby ceded to the United States shall be determined by the Congress." Eleven days thereafter, on Dec. 21, the following direction was given to the commander of our forces in the Philippines:

"The military commander of the United States is enjoined to make known to the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands that in succeeding to the sovereignty of Spain, in severing the former political relations of the inhabitants and in establishing a new political power, the authority of the United States is to be exerted for the securing of the persons and property of the people of the islands, and for the confirmation of all their private rights and relations. It will be the duty of the commander of the forces of occupation to announce and proclaim in the most public manner that we come not as invaders or conquerors, but as friends, to protect the natives in their homes, in their employments, and in their personal and religious rights."

First Philippine Commission.—In order to facilitate the most humane, pacific, and effective extension of authority throughout these islands, and to secure, with the least possible delay, the benefits of a wise and generous protection of life and property to the inhabitants, I appointed, in January, 1899, a commission consisting of Jacob Gould Schurman, of New York; Admiral George Dewey, United States navy; Charles Denby, of Indiana; Prof. Dean C. Worcester, of Michigan, and Maj.-Gen. Elwell S. Otis, United States army. Their instructions contained the following:

"In the performance of this duty the commissioners are enjoined to meet at the earliest possible day in the city of Manila and to announce by public proclamation their presence and the mission intrusted to them, carefully setting forth that, while the military government already proclaimed is to be maintained and continued so long as necessity may re-

quire, efforts will be made to alleviate the burden of taxation, to establish industrial and commercial prosperity, and to provide for the safety of persons and of property by such means as may be found conducive to these ends.

"The commissioners will endeavor, without interference with the military authorities of the United States now in control of the Philippines, to ascertain what amelioration in the condition of the inhabitants and what improvements in public order may be practicable, and for this purpose they will study attentively the existing social and political state of the various populations, particularly as regards the forms of local government, the administration of justice, the collection of customs and other taxes, the means of transportation, and the need of public improvements. They will report . . . the results of their observations and reflections, and will recommend such executive action as may from time to time seem to them wise and useful.

"The commissioners are hereby authorized to confer authoritatively with any persons resident in the islands from whom they may believe themselves able to derive information or suggestions valuable for the purposes of their commission, or whom they may choose to employ as agents, as may be necessary for this purpose. . . .

"It is my desire that in all their relations with the inhabitants of the islands, the commissioners exercise due respect for the ideals, customs, and institutions of the tribes which compose the population, emphasizing upon all occasions the just and beneficent intentions of the government of the United States. It is also my wish and expectation that the commissioners may be received in a manner due to the honored and authorized representatives of the American Republic, duly commissioned on account of their knowledge, skill, and integrity as bearers of the good-will, the protection, and the richest blessings of a liberating rather than a conquering nation."

Offer to the Filipinos.—On Feb. 6, 1899, the treaty was ratified by the Senate of the United States and the Congress immediately appropriated $20,000,000 to carry out its provisions. The ratifications were exchanged by the United States and Spain on Aug. 11, 1899.

As early as April, 1899, the Philippine commission, of which Dr. Schurman was president, endeavored to bring about peace in the islands by repeated conferences with leading Tagalogs representing the so-called insurgent government, to the end that some general plan of government might be offered them which they would accept. So great was the satisfaction of the insurgent commissioners with the form of government proposed by the American commissioners that the latter submitted the proposed scheme to me for approval, and my action thereon is shown by the cable message following:

"*May 5, 1899.*

"SCHURMAN, Manila,—Yours of the 4th received. You are authorized to propose that under the military power of the President, pending action of Congress, government of the Philippine Islands shall consist of a governor-general appointed by the President; cabinet appointed by the governor-general; a general advisory council elected by the people; the qualifications of electors to be carefully considered and determined, and the governor-general to have absolute veto. Judiciary strong and independent; principal judges appointed by the President. The cabinet and judges to be chosen from natives or Americans, or both, having regard to fitness. The President earnestly desires the cessation of bloodshed, and that the people of the Philippine Islands at an early date shall have the largest measure of local self-government consistent with peace and good order."

Report of the Commission.—In the latter part of May another group of representatives came from the insurgent leader. The whole matter was fully discussed with them and promise of acceptance seemed near at hand. They assured our commissioners they would return after consulting with their leader, but they never did.

As a result of the views expressed by the first Tagalog representative favorable to the plan of the commission, it appears that he was, by military order of the insurgent leader, stripped of his shoulder-straps, dismissed from the army, and sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment.

The views of the commission are best set forth in their own words:

"Deplorable as war is, the one in which we are now engaged was unavoidable by us. We were attacked by a bold, adventurous, and enthusiastic army. No alternative was left to us except ignominious retreat.

"It is not to be conceived of that any American would have sanctioned the surrender of Manila to the insurgents. Our obligations to other nations and to the friendly Filipinos and to ourselves and our flag demanded that force should be met with force. Whatever the future of the Philippines may be, there is no course open to us now except the prosecution of the war until the insurgents are reduced to submission. The commission is of the opinion that there has been no time since the destruction of the Spanish squadron by Admiral Dewey when it was possible to withdraw our forces from the islands either with honor to ourselves or with safety to the inhabitants."

After the most thorough study of the peoples of the archipelago, the commission reported, among other things:

"Their lack of education and political experience, combined with their racial and linguistic diversities, disqualify them, in spite of their mental gifts and domestic virtues, to undertake the task of governing the archipelago at the present time. The most that can be expected of them is to co-operate with the Americans in the administration of general affairs from Manila as a centre, and to undertake, subject to American control or guidance (as may be found necessary), the administration of provincial and municipal affairs. . . .

"Should our power by any fatality be withdrawn, the commission believes that the government of the Philippines would speedily lapse into anarchy, which would excuse, if it did not necessitate, the intervention of other powers, and the eventual division of the islands among them. Only through American occupation, therefore, is the idea of a free, self-governing, and united Philippine commonwealth at all conceivable. . . .

"Thus the welfare of the Filipinos coincides with the dictates of national honor in forbidding our abandonment of the archipelago. We cannot from any point of view escape the responsibilities of government which our sovereignty entails; and the commission is strongly persuaded that the performance of our national duty will prove the greatest blessing to the people of the Philippine Islands."

Satisfied that nothing further could be accomplished in pursuance of their mission until the rebellion was suppressed, and desiring to place before the Congress the result of their observations, I requested the commission to return to the United States. Their most intelligent and comprehensive report was submitted to Congress.

Civil Commission Appointed. — In March, 1900, believing that the insurrection was practically ended and earnestly desiring to promote the establishment of a stable government in the archipelago, I appointed the following civil commission: William H. Taft, of Ohio; Prof. Dean C. Worcester, of Michigan; Luke I. Wright, of Tennessee; Henry C. Ide, of Vermont; and Bernard Moses, of California. My instructions to them contained the following:

"You (the Secretary of War) will instruct the commission to devote their attention in the first instance to the establishment of municipal governments, in which the natives of the islands, both in the cities and in the rural communities, shall be afforded the opportunity to manage their own local affairs to the fullest extent of which they are capable, and subject to the least degree of supervision and control which a careful study of their capacities and observation of the workings of native control show to be consistent with the maintenance of law, order, and loyalty. Whenever the commission is of the opinion that the condition of affairs in the islands is such that the administration may safely be transferred from military to civil control they will report that conclusion to you (the Secretary of War), with their recommendations as to the form of central government to be established for the purpose of taking over the control.

"Beginning with Sept. 1, 1900, the authority to exercise, subject to my approval, through the Secretary of War, that part of the power of government in

the Philippine Islands which is of a legislative nature is to be transferred from the military governor of the islands to this commission, to be thereafter exercised by them in the place and stead of the military governor, under such rules and regulations as you (the Secretary of War) shall prescribe, until the establishment of the civil central government for the islands contemplated in the last foregoing paragraph, or until Congress shall otherwise provide. Exercise of this legislative authority will include the making of rules and orders having the effect of law for the raising of revenue by taxes, customs duties and imposts, the appropriation and expenditure of the public funds of the islands, the establishment of an educational system throughout the islands, the establishment of a system to secure an efficient civil service, the organization and establishment of courts, the organization and establishment of municipal and departmental governments, and all other matters of a civil nature for which the military governor is now competent to provide by rules or orders of a legislative character. The commission will also have power during the same period to appoint to office such officers under the judicial, educational, and civil service systems and in the municipal and departmental governments as shall be provided."

Commission's Instructions.—Until Congress shall take action I directed that:

"Upon every division and branch of the government of the Philippines must be imposed these inviolable rules:

"That no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; that private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation; that in all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation, to be confronted with the witnesses against him, to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence; that excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishment inflicted; that no person shall be put twice in jeopardy for the same offence, or be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; that the right to be secure against unreasonable searches and seizures shall not be violated; that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall exist except as a punishment for crime; that no bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed; that no law shall be passed abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the rights of the people to peaceably assemble and petition the government for a redress of grievances; that no law shall be made respecting the establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, and that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship without discrimination or preference shall forever be allowed. . . .

"It will be the duty of the commission to promote and extend, and, as they find occasion, to improve, the system of education already inaugurated by the military authorities. In doing this they should regard as of first importance the extension of a system of primary education which shall be free to all, and which shall tend to fit the people for the duties of citizenship, and for the ordinary avocations of a civilized community. . . . Especial attention should be at once given to affording full opportunity to all the people of the islands to acquire the use of the English language. . . .

"Upon all officers and employés of the United States, both civil and military, should be impressed a sense of the duty to observe not merely the material but the personal and social rights of the people of the islands, and to treat them with the same courtesy and respect for their personal dignity which the people of the United States are accustomed to require from each other.

"The articles of capitulation of the city of Manila on Aug. 13, 1898, concluded with these words:

"'This city, its inhabitants, its churches and religious worship, its educational establishments and its private property of all descriptions, are placed under the special safeguard of the faith and honor of the American army.'

"I believe that this pledge has been faithfully kept. As high and sacred an obligation rests upon the government of the United States to give protection for prop-

erty and life, civil and religious freedom, and wise, firm, and unselfish guidance in the paths of peace and prosperity to all the people of the Philippine Islands. I charge this commission to labor for the full performance of this obligation, which concerns the honor and conscience of their country, in the firm hope that through their labors all the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands may come to look back with gratitude to the day when God gave victory to the American army at Manila and set their land under the sovereignty and the protection of the people of the United States."

That all might share in the regeneration of the islands and participate in their government, I directed General MacArthur, the military governor of the Philippines, to issue a proclamation of amnesty, which contained among other statements the following:

"MANILA, P. I., *June 21, 1900.*

"By direction of the President of the United States, the undersigned announces amnesty, with complete immunity for the past and absolute liberty of action for the future, to all persons who are now, or at any time since Feb. 4, 1899, have been in insurrection against the United States in either a military or civil capacity, and who shall, within a period of ninety days from the date hereof, formally renounce all connection with such insurrection and subscribe to a declaration acknowledging and accepting the sovereignty and authority of the United States in and over the Philippine Islands. The privilege herewith published is extended to all concerned without any reservation whatever, excepting that persons who have violated the laws of war during the period of active hostilities are not embraced within the scope of this amnesty. . . .

"In order to mitigate as much as possible consequences resulting from the various disturbances which since 1896 have succeeded each other so rapidly, and to provide in some measure for destitute Filipino soldiers during the transitory period which must inevitably succeed a general peace, the military authorities of the United States will pay 30 pesos to each man who presents a rifle in good condition."

Civil Commission's Report.—Under their instructions the commission, composed of representative Americans of different sections of the country and from different political parties, whose character and ability guarantee the most faithful intelligence and patriotic service, are now laboring to establish stable government under civil control, in which the inhabitants shall participate, giving them opportunity to demonstrate how far they are prepared for self-government. This commission, under date of Aug. 21, 1900, makes an interesting report, from which I quote the following extracts:

"Hostility against Americans originally aroused by absurd falsehoods of unscrupulous leaders. The distribution of troops in 300 posts has by contact largely dispelled hostility, and steadily improved the temper of the people. This improvement is furthered by abuses of insurgents. Large numbers of people long for peace, and are willing to accept government under the United States. Insurgents not surrendering after defeat divided into small guerilla bands under general officers or become robbers. Nearly all of the prominent generals and politicians of the insurrection, except Aguinaldo, have since been captured or have surrendered and taken the oath of allegiance. . . .

"All northern Luzon, except two provinces, is substantially free from insurgents. People are busy planting, and asking for municipal organization. Railway and telegraph line from Manila to Dagupan, 122 miles, not molested for five months. . . . Tagalogs alone active in leading guerilla warfare. In Negros, Cebu, Romblon, Masbate, Sibuyan, Tablas, Bohol, and other Philippine Islands little disturbance exists and civil government eagerly awaited. . . .

"Four years of war and lawlessness in parts of islands have created unsettled conditions. . . . Native constabulary and militia, which should be organized at once, will end this, and the terrorism to which defenceless people are subjected. The natives desire to enlist in these organizations. If judiciously selected and officered, will be efficient forces for maintenance of order, and will permit early material reduction of United States troops. . . . Turning islands over to coterie of Tagalog politicians will blight fair prospects of enormous improvement,

drive out capital, make life and property, secular and religious, most insecure; banish by fear of cruel proscription considerable body of conservative Filipinos who have aided Americans in well-founded belief that their people are not now fit for self-government, and reintroduce same oppression and corruption which existed in all provinces under Malolos insurgent government during the eight months of its control. The result will be factional strife between jealous leaders, chaos and anarchy, and will require and justify active intervention of our government or some other. . . .

"Business, interrupted by war, much improved as peace extends. . . . In Negros more sugar in cultivation than ever before. New forestry regulations give impetus to timber trade, and reduce high price of lumber. The customs collections for the last quarter 50 per cent. greater than ever in Spanish history, and August collections show further increase. The total revenue for same period one-third greater than in any quarter under Spain, though cedula tax, chief source of Spanish revenue, practically abolished. Economy and efficiency of military government have created surplus fund of $6,000,000, which should be expended in much-needed public works, notably improvement of Manila Harbor. . . . With proper tariff and facilities, Manila will become great port of Orient."

Philippines' Bright Outlook.—The commission is confident that "by a judicious customs law, reasonable land tax, and proper corporation franchise tax, imposition of no greater rate than that in an average American State will give less annoyance, and with peace will produce revenues sufficient to pay expenses of efficient government, including militia and constabulary." They "are preparing a stringent civil service law, giving equal opportunity to Filipinos and Americans, with preference for the former where qualifications are equal, to enter at lowest rank, and by promotion reach head of department. . . . Forty-five miles of railroad extension under negotiation will give access to a large province rich in valuable minerals, a mile high, with strictly temperate climate. . . . Railroad construction will give employment to many, the communication will furnish market to vast stretches of rich agricultural lands." They report that there are "calls from all parts of the islands for public schools, school supplies, and English teachers greater than the commission can provide until a comprehensive school system is organized. Night schools for teaching English to adults are being established in response to popular demand. Native children show aptitude in learning English. Spanish is spoken by a small fraction of people, and in a few years the medium of communication in the courts, public offices, and between different tribes will be English; creation of central government within eighteen months, under which substantially all rights described in the bill of rights in the federal Constitution are to be secured to the people of the Philippines, will bring to them contentment, prosperity, education, and political enlightenment."

No Alliance with Natives.—This shows to my countrymen what has been and is being done to bring the benefits of liberty and good government to these wards of the nation. Every effort has been directed to their peace and prosperity, their advancement and well-being, not for our aggrandizement nor for pride of might, not for trade or commerce, not for exploitation, but for humanity and civilization, and for the protection of the vast majority of the population who welcome our sovereignty against the designing minority whose first demand after the surrender of Manila by the Spanish army was to enter the city that they might loot it and destroy those not in sympathy with their selfish and treacherous designs.

Nobody who will avail himself of the facts will longer hold that there was any alliance between our soldiers and the insurgents, or that any promise of independence was made to them. Long before their leader had reached Manila they had resolved if the commander of the American army would give them arms with which to fight the Spanish army they would later turn upon us, which they did murderously and without the shadow of cause or justification. There may be those without the means of full information who believe that we were in alliance with the insurgents and that we assured them that they

should have independence. To such let me repeat the facts: On May 26, 1898, Admiral Dewey was instructed by me to make no alliance with any party or faction in the Philippines that would incur liability to maintain their cause in the future, and he replied, under date of June 6, 1898:

"Have acted according to spirit of department's instructions from the beginning, and I have entered into no alliance with the insurgents or with any faction. This squadron can reduce the defences of Manila at any moment, but it is considered useless until the arrival of sufficient United States forces to retain possession."

In the report of the first Philippine commission, submitted on Nov. 2, 1899, Admiral Dewey, one of its members, said:

"No alliance of any kind was entered into with Aguinaldo, nor was any promise of independence made to him at any time."

General Merritt arrived in the Philippines on July 25, 1898, and a despatch from Admiral Dewey to the government at Washington said:

"Merritt arrived yesterday. Situation is most critical at Manila. The Spanish may surrender at any moment. Merritt's most difficult problem will be how to deal with the insurgents under Aguinaldo, who have become aggressive and even threatening towards our army."

Here is revealed the spirit of the insurgents as early as July, 1898, before the protocol was signed, while we were still engaged in active war with Spain. Even then the insurgents were threatening our army.

The Capture of Manila.—On Aug. 13 Manila was captured, and of this and subsequent events the Philippine commission says:

"When the city of Manila was taken, Aug. 13, the Filipinos took no part in the attack, but came following in with a view to looting the city, and were only prevented from doing so by our forces preventing them from entering. Aguinaldo claimed that he had the right to occupy the city; he demanded of General Merritt the palace of Malacanan for himself and the cession of all the churches of Manila, also that a part of the money taken from the Spaniards as spoils of war should be given up, and, above all, that he should be given the arms of the Spanish prisoners. All these demands were refused."

Generals Merritt, Greene, and Anderson, who were in command at the beginning of our occupation and until the surrender of Manila, state that there was no alliance with the insurgents and no promise to them of independence. On Aug. 17, 1898, General Merritt was instructed that there must be no joint occupation of Manila with the insurgents. General Anderson, under date of Feb. 10, 1900, says that he was present at the interview between Admiral Dewey and the insurgent leader, and that in this interview Admiral Dewey made no promises whatever. He adds:

"He [Aguinaldo] asked me if my government was going to recognize his government. I answered that I was there simply in a military capacity; that I could not acknowledge his government because I had no authority to do so."

The Duty of Holding the Philippines.—Would not our adversaries have sent Dewey's fleet to Manila to capture and destroy the Spanish sea-power there, or, despatching it there, would they have withdrawn it after the destruction of the Spanish fleet; and if the latter, whither would they have directed it to sail? Where could it have gone? What port in the Orient was opened to it? Do our adversaries condemn the expedition under the command of General Merritt to strengthen Dewey in the distant ocean and assist in our triumph over Spain, with which nation we were at war? Was it not our highest duty to strike Spain at every vulnerable point, that the war might be successfully concluded at the earliest practicable moment?

And was it not our duty to protect the lives and property of those who came within our control by the fortunes of war? Could we have come away at any time between May 1, 1898, and the conclusion of peace without a stain upon our good name? Could we have come away without dishonor at any time after the ratification of the peace treaty by the Senate of the United States?

There has been no time since the destruction of the enemy's fleet when we could or should have left the Philippine

Archipelago. After the treaty of peace was ratified no power but Congress could surrender our sovereignty or alienate a foot of the territory thus acquired. The Congress has not seen fit to do the one or the other, and the President had no authority to do either, if he had been so inclined, which he was not. So long as the sovereignty remains in us it is the duty of the executive, whoever he may be, to uphold that sovereignty, and if it be attacked to suppress its assailants. Would our political adversaries do less?

Tagals took the Offensive.—It has been asserted that there would have been no fighting in the Philippines if Congress had declared its purpose to give independence to the Tagal insurgents. The insurgents did not wait for the action of Congress. They assumed the offensive; they opened fire on our army. Those who assert our responsibility for the beginning of the conflict have forgotten that before the treaty was ratified in the Senate, and while it was being debated in that body, and while the Bacon resolution was under discussion, on Feb. 4, 1899, the insurgents attacked the American army, after being previously advised that the American forces were under orders not to fire upon them except in defence. The papers found in the recently captured archives of the insurgents demonstrate that this attack had been carefully planned for weeks before it occurred. Their unprovoked assault upon our soldiers at a time when the Senate was deliberating upon the treaty shows that no action on our part except surrender and abandonment would have prevented the fighting, and leaves no doubt in any fair mind of where the responsibility rests for the shedding of American blood.

With all the exaggerated phrase-making of this electoral contest we are in danger of being diverted from the real contention. We are in agreement with all of those who supported the war with Spain, and also with those who counselled the ratification of the treaty of peace. Upon these two great essential steps there can be no issue, and out of these came all of our responsibilities. If others would shirk the obligations imposed by the war and the treaty, we must decline to act further with them, and here the issue was made. It is our purpose to establish in the Philippines a government suitable to the wants and conditions of the inhabitants, and to prepare them for self-government, and to give them self-government when they are ready for it and as rapidly as they are ready for it. That I am aiming to do under my constitutional authority, and will continue to do until Congress shall determine the political status of the inhabitants of the archipelago.

Democrats are Responsible.—Are our opponents against the treaty? If so, they must be reminded that it could not have been ratified in the Senate but for their assistance. The Senate which ratified the treaty and the Congress which added its sanction by a large appropriation comprised Senators and Representatives of the people of all parties.

Would our opponents surrender to the insurgents, abandon our sovereignty, or cede it to them? If that be not their purpose then it should be promptly disclaimed, for only evil can result from the hopes raised by our opponents in the minds of the Filipinos that, with their success at the polls in November, there will be a withdrawal of our army and of American sovereignty over the archipelago, the complete independence of the Tagalog people recognized, and the powers of government over all the other peoples of the archipelago conferred upon the Tagalog leaders.

The effect of a belief in the minds of the insurgents that this will be done has already prolonged the rebellion, and increases the necessity for the continuance of a large army. It is now delaying full peace in the archipelago and the establishment of civil governments, and has influenced many of the insurgents against accepting the liberal terms of amnesty offered by General MacArthur under my direction. But for these false hopes a considerable reduction could have been had in our military establishment in the Philippines, and the realization of a stable government would be already at hand.

The American people are asked by our opponents to yield the sovereignty of the United States in the Philippines to a small fraction of the population, a single tribe out of eighty or more inhabiting

the archipelago, a fraction which wantonly attacked the American troops in Manila while in rightful possession under the protocol with Spain, awaiting the ratification of the treaty of peace by the Senate, and which has since been in active, open rebellion against the United States. We are asked to transfer our sovereignty to a small minority in the islands without consulting the majority, and to abandon the largest portion of the population, which has been loyal to us, to the cruelties of the guerilla insurgent bands. More than this, we are asked to protect this minority in establishing a government, and to this end repress all opposition of the majority. We are required to set up a stable government in the interest of those who have assailed our sovereignty and fired upon our soldiers, and then maintain it at any cost or sacrifice against its enemies within and against those having ambitious designs from without.

Democrats want Militarism. — This would require an army and navy far larger than is now maintained in the Philippines, and still more in excess of what will be necessary with the full recognition of our sovereignty. A military support of authority not our own, as thus proposed, is the very essence of militarism, which our opponents in their platform oppose, but which by their policy would of necessity be established in its most offensive form.

The American people will not make the murderers of our soldiers the agents of the republic to convey the blessing of liberty and order to the Philippines. They will not make them the builders of the new commonwealth. Such a course would be a betrayal of our sacred obligations to the peaceful Filipinos, and would place at the mercy of dangerous adventurers the lives and property of the natives and the foreigners. It would make possible and easy the commission of such atrocities as were secretly planned, to be executed on Feb. 22, 1899, in the city of Manila, when only the vigilance of our army prevented the attempt to assassinate our soldiers and all foreigners and pillage and destroy the city and its surroundings.

In short, the proposition of those opposed to us is to continue all the obligations in the Philippines which now rest upon the government, only changing the relation from principal, which now exists, to that of surety. Our responsibility is to remain, but our power is to be diminished. Our obligation is to be no less, but our title is to be surrendered to another power, which is without experience or training or the ability to maintain a stable government at home, and absolutely helpless to perform its international obligations with the rest of the world. To this we are opposed. We should not yield our title while our obligations last. In the language of our platform, "Our authority should not be less than our responsibility," and our present responsibility is to establish our authority in every part of the islands.

Sovereignty is Essential.—No government can so certainly preserve the peace, restore public order, establish law, justice, and stable conditions as ours. Neither Congress nor the executive can establish a stable government in these islands except under our right of sovereignty, our authority, and our flag. And this we are doing. We could not do it as a protectorate power so completely or so successfully as we are doing it now. As the sovereign power we can initiate action and shape means to ends, and guide the Filipinos to self-development and self-government. As a protectorate power we could not initiate action, but would be compelled to follow and uphold a people with no capacity yet to go alone. In the one case, we can protect both ourselves and the Filipinos from being involved in dangerous complications; in the other, we could not protect even the Filipinos until after their trouble had come.

Besides, if we cannot establish any government of our own without the consent of the governed, as our opponents contend, then we could not establish a stable government for them or make ours a protectorate without the like consent, and neither the majority of the people nor a minority of the people have invited us to assume it. We could not maintain a protectorate even with the consent of the governed without giving provocation for conflicts and possibly costly wars. Our rights in the Philippines are now free from outside interference, and will continue so in our present relation. They would not

be thus free in any other relation. We will not give up our own to guarantee another sovereignty.

American Title is Good.—Our title is good. Our peace commissioners believed they were receiving a good title when they concluded the treaty. The executive believed it was a good title when he submitted it to the Senate of the United States for its ratification. The Senate believed it was a good title when they gave it their constitutional assent, and the Congress seem not to have doubted its completeness when they appropriated $20,000,000 provided by the treaty. If any who favored its ratification believed it gave us a bad title, they were not sincere. Our title is practically identical with that under which we hold our territory acquired since the beginning of the government, and under which we have exercised full sovereignty and established government for the inhabitants.

It is worthy of note that no one outside of the United States disputes the fulness and integrity of the cession. What, then, is the real issue on this subject? Whether it is paramount to any other or not, it is whether we shall be responsible for the government of the Philippines with the sovereignty and authority which enable us to guide them to regulated liberty, law, safety, and progress, or whether we shall be responsible for the forcible and arbitrary government of a minority without sovereignty and authority on our part, and with only the embarrassment of a protectorate which draws us into their troubles without the power of preventing them.

There were those who two years ago were rushing us up to war with Spain who are unwilling now to accept its clear consequence, as there are those among us who advocated the ratification of the treaty of peace, but now protest against its obligations. Nations which go to war must be prepared to accept its resultant obligations, and when they make treaties must keep them.

The Administration's Purpose. — Those who profess to distrust the liberal and honorable purposes of the administration in its treatment of the Philippines are not justified. Imperialism has no place in its creed or conduct. Freedom is a rock upon which the Republican party was builded and now rests. Liberty is the great Republican doctrine, for which the people went to war, and for which a million lives were offered and billions of dollars were expended to make it a lawful legacy of all without the consent of master or slave. There is a strain of ill-concealed hypocrisy in the anxiety to extend the constitutional guarantees to the people of the Philippines, while their nullification is openly advocated at home.

Our opponents may distrust themselves, but they have no right to discredit the good faith and patriotism of the majority of the people, who are opposed to them; they may fear the worst form of imperialism with the helpless Filipinos in their hands, but if they do, it is because they have parted with the spirit and faith of the fathers and have lost the virility of the founders of the party which they profess to represent.

The Republican party doesn't have to assert its devotion to the Declaration of Independence. That immortal instrument of the fathers remained unexecuted until the people, under the lead of the Republican party in the awful clash of battle, turned its promises into fulfilment. It wrote into the Constitution the amendments guaranteeing political equality to American citizenship, and it has never broken them or counselled others in breaking them. It will not be guided in its conduct by one set of principles at home and another set in the new territory belonging to the United States.

If our opponents would only practise as well as preach the doctrines of Abraham Lincoln, there would be no fear for the safety of our institutions at home or their rightful influence in any territory over which our flag floats. Empire has been expelled from Porto Rico and the Philippines by American freemen. The flag of the republic now floats over these islands as an emblem of rightful sovereignty. Will the republic stay and dispense to their inhabitants the blessings of liberty, education, and free institutions, or steal away, leaving them to anarchy or imperialism?

The American question is between duty and desertion—the American verdict will

be for duty and against desertion, for the republic is against both anarchy and imperialism.

The Chinese Situation. — The country has been fully advised of the purposes of the United States in China, and they will be faithfully adhered to as already defined. The nation is filled with gratitude that the little band, among them many of our own blood, who for two months have been subjected to privations and peril by the attacks of pitiless hordes at the Chinese capital, exhibiting supreme courage in the face of despair, have been enabled by God's favor to greet their rescuers and find shelter under their own flag.

The people, not alone of this land, but of all lands, have watched and prayed through the terrible stress and protracted agony of the helpless sufferers in Peking, and while at times the dark tidings seemed to make all hope vain, the rescuers never faltered in the heroic fulfilment of their noble task. We are grateful to our own soldiers and sailors and marines, and to all the brave men, who, though assembled under many standards representing peoples and races strangers in country and speech, were yet united in the sacred mission of carrying succor to the besieged with a success that is now the cause of a world's rejoicing.

Reunion of the North and South in Feeling.—Not only have we reason for thanksgiving for our material blessings, but we should rejoice in the complete unification of the people of all sections of our country that has so happily developed in the last few years and made for us a more perfect union.

The obliteration of old differences, the common devotion to the flag and the common sacrifices for its honor, so conspicuously shown by the men of the North and South in the Spanish War, have so strengthened the ties of friendship and mutual respect that nothing can ever again divide us. The nation faces the new century gratefully and hopefully, with increasing love of country, with firm faith in its free institutions, and with high resolve that they "shall not perish from the earth.

Very respectfully yours,
WILLIAM McKINLEY.

Second Inaugural Address, March 4, 1901:

My fellow-citizens, — When we assembled here on March 4, 1897, there was great anxiety with regard to our currency and credit. None exists now. Then our treasury receipts were inadequate to meet the current obligations of the government. Now they are sufficient for all public needs, and we have a surplus instead of a deficit. Then I felt constrained to convene the Congress in extraordinary session to devise revenues to pay the ordinary expenses of the government. Now I have the satisfaction to announce that the Congress just closed has reduced taxation in the sum of $41,000,000. Then there was deep solicitude because of the long depression and the consequent distress of our laboring population. Now every avenue of production is crowded with activity, labor is well employed, and American products find good markets at home and abroad.

Our diversified productions, however, are increasing in such unprecedented volume as to admonish us of the necessity of still further enlarging our foreign markets by broader commercial relations. For this purpose reciprocal trade arrangements with other nations should in liberal spirit be carefully cultivated and promoted.

The national verdict of 1896 has for the most part been executed. Whatever remains unfulfilled is a continuing obligation resting with undiminished force upon the executive and the Congress. But fortunate as our condition is, its permanence can only be assured by sound business methods and strict economy in national administration and legislation. We should not permit our great prosperity to lead us to reckless ventures in business or profligacy in public expenditures. While the Congress determines the objects and the sum of appropriations, the officials of the executive departments are responsible for honest and faithful disbursement, and it should be their constant care to avoid waste and extravagance.

Honesty, capacity, and industry are nowhere more indispensable than in public employment. There should be fundamental requisites to appointment and the surest guarantees against removal.

Four years ago we stood on the brink of war without the people knowing it and without any preparation or effort at preparation for the impending peril. I did all that in honor could be done to avert the war, but without avail. It became inevitable, and the Congress at its first regular session, without party division, provided money in anticipation of the crisis and in preparation to meet it. It came. The result was signally favorable to American arms, and in the highest degree honorable to the government. It imposed upon us obligations from which we cannot escape and from which it would be dishonorable to seek to escape. We are now at peace with the world, and it is my fervent prayer that if differences arise between us and other powers they may be settled by peaceful arbitration and that hereafter we may be spared the horrors of war.

Entrusted by the people for a second time with the office of President, I enter upon its administration appreciating the great responsibilities which attach to this renewed honor and commission, promising unreserved devotion on my part to their faithful discharge and reverently invoking for my guidance the direction and favor of Almighty God. I should shrink from the duties this day assumed if I did not feel that in their performance I should have the co-operation of the wise and patriotic men of all parties. It encourages me for the great task which I now undertake to believe that those who voluntarily committed to me the trust imposed upon the chief executive of the republic will give to me generous support in my duties to "preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States" and to "care that the laws be faithfully executed." The national purpose is indicated through a national election. It is the constitutional method of ascertaining the public will. When once it is registered it is a law to us all, and faithful observance should follow its decrees.

Strong hearts and helpful hands are needed, and, fortunately, we have them in every part of our beloved country. We are reunited. Sectionalism has disappeared. Division on public questions can no longer be traced by the war maps of 1861. These old differences less and less disturb the judgment. Existing problems demand the thought and quicken the conscience of the country, and the responsibility for their presence as well as for their righteous settlement rests upon us all — no more upon me than upon you. There are some national questions in the solution of which patriotism should exclude partisanship. Magnifying their difficulties will not take them off our hands nor facilitate their adjustment. Distrust of the capacity, integrity, and high purposes of the American people will not be an inspiring theme for future political contests. Dark pictures and gloomy forebodings are worse than useless. These only becloud, they do not help to point the way to safety and honor. "Hope maketh not ashamed." The prophets of evil were not the builders of the republic, nor in its crises since have they saved or served it. The faith of the fathers was a mighty force in its creation, and the faith of their descendants has wrought its progress and furnished its defenders.

They are obstructionists who despair and who would destroy confidence in the ability of our people to solve wisely and for civilization the mighty problems resting upon them. The American people, intrenched in freedom at home, take their love for it wherever they go, and they reject as mistaken and unworthy the doctrine that we lose our own liberties by securing the enduring foundations of liberty to others. Our institutions will not deteriorate by extension, and our sense of justice will not abate under tropic suns in distant seas. As heretofore, so hereafter will the nation demonstrate its fitness to administer any new estate which events devolve upon it, and in the fear of God will "take occasion by the hand and make the bounds of freedom wider yet." If there are those among us who would make our way more difficult, we must not be disheartened, but the more earnestly dedicate ourselves to the task upon which we have rightly entered. The path of progress is seldom smooth. New things are often found hard to do. Our fathers found them so. We find them so. They are inconvenient. They cost us something. But are we not made better for the effort and sacrifice, and are not those we serve lifted up and blessed?

We will be consoled, too, with the fact that opposition has confronted every onward movement of the republic from its opening hour until now, but without success. The republic has marched on and on, and its every step has exalted freedom and humanity. We are undergoing the same ordeal as did our predecessors nearly a century ago. We are following the course they blazed. They triumphed. Will their successors falter and plead organic impotency in the nation? Surely after 125 years of achievement for mankind we will not now surrender our equality with other powers on matters fundamental and essential to nationality. With no such purpose was the nation created. In no such spirit has it developed its full and independent sovereignty. We adhere to the principle of equality among ourselves, and by no act of ours will we assign to ourselves a subordinate rank in the family of nations.

My fellow-citizens, the public events of the past four years have gone into history. They are too near to justify recital. Some of them were unforeseen; many of them momentous and far-reaching in their consequences to ourselves and our relations with the rest of the world. The part which the United States bore so honorably in the thrilling scenes in China, while new to American life, has been in harmony with its true spirit and best traditions, and in dealing with the results its policy will be that of moderation and fairness.

We face at this moment a most important question—that of the future relations of the United States and Cuba. With our near neighbors we must remain close friends. The declaration of the purposes of this government in the resolution of April 20, 1898, must be made good. Ever since the evacuation of the island by the army of Spain the executive with all practicable speed has been assisting its people in the successive steps necessary to the establishment of a free and independent government, prepared to assume and perform the obligations of international law which now rest upon the United States under the treaty of Paris. The convention elected by the people to frame a constitution is approaching the completion of its labors. The transfer of American control to the new government is of such great importance, involving an obligation resulting from our intervention and the treaty of peace, that I am glad to be advised by the recent act of Congress of the policy which the legislative branch of the government deems essential to the best interests of Cuba and the United States. The principles which led to our intervention require that the fundamental law upon which the new government rests should be adapted to secure a government capable of performing the duties and discharging the functions of a separate nation, of observing its international obligations, of protecting life and property, insuring order, safety, and liberty, and conforming to the established and historical policy of the United States in its relation to Cuba.

The peace which we are pledged to leave to the Cuban people must carry with it the guarantees of permanence. We became sponsors for the pacification of the island and we remain accountable to the Cubans, no less than to our own country and people, for the reconstruction of Cuba as a free commonwealth on abiding foundations of right, justice, liberty, and assured order. Our enfranchisement of the people will not be completed until free Cuba shall "be a reality, not a name; a perfect entity, not a hasty experiment, bearing within itself the elements of failure."

While the treaty of peace with Spain was ratified on Feb. 6, 1899, and ratifications were exchanged nearly two years ago, the Congress has indicated no form of government for the Philippine Islands. It has, however, provided an army to enable the executive to suppress insurrection, restore peace, give security to the inhabitants, and establish the authority of the United States throughout the archipelago. It has authorized the organization of native troops as auxiliary to the regular force. It has been advised from time to time of the acts of the military and naval officers in the islands, of my action in appointing civil commissions, of the instructions with which they were charged, of their duties and powers, of their recommendations, and of their several acts under executive commission, together with the very complete general information they have submitted. These reports fully set forth the conditions, past

and present, in the islands, and the instructions clearly show the principles which will guide the executive until the Congress shall, as it is required to do by the treaty, determine "the civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants."

The Congress having added the sanction of its authority to the powers already possessed and exercised by the executive under the Constitution, thereby leaving with the executive the responsibility for the government of the Philippines, I shall continue the efforts already begun until order shall be restored throughout the islands, and as fast as conditions permit will establish local governments, in the formation of which the full co-operation of the people has been already invited, and when established will encourage the people to administer them. The settled purpose, long ago proclaimed, to afford the inhabitants of the islands self-government as fast as they were ready for it will be pursued with earnestness and fidelity. Already something has been accomplished in this direction. The government's representatives, civil and military, are doing faithful and noble work in their mission of emancipation, and merit the approval and support of their countrymen.

The most liberal terms of amnesty have already been communicated to the insurgents; the way is still open for those who have raised their arms against the government for honorable submission to its authority. Our countrymen should not be deceived. We are not waging war against the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands. A portion of them are making war against the United States. By far the greater part of the inhabitants recognize American sovereignty and welcome it as a guarantee of order and of security for life, property, liberty, freedom of conscience, and the pursuit of happiness. To them full protection will be given. They shall not be abandoned. We will not leave the destiny of the loyal millions in the islands to the disloyal thousands who are in rebellion against the United States. Order under civil institutions will come as soon as those who now break the peace shall keep it. Force will not be needed or used when those who make war against us shall make it no more. May it end without further bloodshed, and there be ushered in the reign of peace to be made permanent by a government of liberty under law!

McKinly, JOHN, governor of Delaware; born in Ireland, Feb. 24, 1724; emigrated to the United States when a young man; held several State offices, and in 1777 was elected governor of Delaware. After the battle of the Brandywine the British plundered Wilmington and captured McKinly, but released him on parole in August, 1778. He died in Wilmington, Del., Aug. 31, 1796.

McKinney, MORDECAI, lawyer; born near Carlisle, Pa., about 1796; graduated at Dickinson College in 1814; admitted to the bar in 1817; began practice in Harrisburg; and was made deputy attorney-general of Miami county in 1821. Later he devoted his time to compiling works on law. His publications include *The Pennsylvania Justice of the Peace; The United States Constitutional Manual; Our Government; The American Magistrate and Civil Officer: A Manual for Popular Use; Pennsylvania Tax Laws;* and *A Digest of the Laws of Pennsylvania Relative to Banks and Bankers.* He died in Harrisburg, Pa., Dec. 17, 1867.

McKnight, CHARLES, surgeon; born in Cranberry, N. J., Oct. 10, 1750; graduated at Princeton in 1771, studied medicine with Dr. William Shippen, and entered the Continental army as a surgeon. He soon became surgeon of the Middle Department. After the war he settled in New York, where he became a very eminent practitioner, and was for some time Professor of Anatomy and Surgery in Columbia College. He died in New York City, Nov. 10, 1791.

McKnight, HARVEY WASHINGTON, educator; born in McKnightstown, Pa., April 3, 1843; graduated at Pennsylvania College, Gettysburg, in 1865, and at the Theological Seminary there in 1867. He served in the Union army from 1862 till the close of the war. In 1867–70 he was pastor of the Zion Lutheran Church, in Newville, Pa.; in 1872–80 of St. Paul's Church in Easton, Pa.; in 1880–84 of the first English Lutheran Church in Cincinnati. In the latter year he became president of Pennsylvania College. In 1889–91 he was president of the General Synod of the Lutheran Church of the United

States. He established the Pennsylvania Chautauqua.

McLane, ALLAN, military officer; born presumably in Philadelphia, Aug. 8, 1746. Removing to Delaware in 1774, he left an estate in Philadelphia worth $15,000, the whole of which he sacrificed in the service of his country. He entered warmly into the contest for freedom, becoming first a lieutenant in Cæsar Rodney's regiment; joined the army under Washington in 1776, and distinguished himself at the battles of Long Island, White Plains, Trenton, and Princeton; was made a captain in 1777; commanded the outposts of the Continental army around Philadelphia while that city was occupied by the British (1777–78); and was made major of the infantry of Lee's "Legion." While in service under GEN. HENRY LEE (*q. v.*), he discovered and reported the weakness of the garrison at Stony Point, and promoted its capture on July 16, 1779. He also revealed the weakness of the garrison at Paulus's Hook, and participated in the brilliant affair there, Aug. 19, 1779. His personal courage and strength were remarkable. In an encounter, near Frankford, Pa., with three British dragoons, he killed one, wounded another, and caused the third to flee for his life. After the war he held prominent civil posts—namely, member of the Assembly of Delaware, and its speaker; six years a privy councillor; a judge of the court of common pleas; marshal of the district from 1790 to 1798; and collector of the port of Wilmington from 1808 until his death, in that city, May 22, 1829.

McLane, LOUIS, diplomatist; born in Smyrna, Del., May 28, 1786; son of Allan McLane; entered the navy at thirteen years of age, and served as a midshipman under Decatur in the *Philadelphia,* but afterwards studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1808. When Baltimore was threatened, in 1814, he was a member of a volunteer corps that marched to its defence. For ten successive years (1817–27) he represented Delaware in Congress, and was United States Senator in 1827–29. In May, 1829, President Jackson appointed him American minister to Great Britain, which post he held two years, when he was called to Jackson's cabinet as Secretary of the Treasury. In his instructions to Minister McLane, the President said, "Ask nothing but what is right, and submit to nothing that is wrong." In 1833, in consequence of his declining to remove the government deposits from the United States Bank, he was transferred to the post of Secretary of State, which he held until 1834, when he resigned. In 1837–47 he was president of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Pending the settlement of the Oregon boundary question, he was again minister to Great Britain, appointed by President Polk in June, 1845. His last public acts were as a member of the convention at Annapolis to reform the constitution of Maryland. He died in Baltimore, Md., Oct. 7, 1857.

McLane, ROBERT MILLIGAN, diplomatist; born in Wilmington, Del., June 23, 1815; a son of Louis McLane; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1837, and assigned to the 1st Artillery. In 1841–43 he studied the dike and drainage systems of Italy and Holland. Returning to the United States, he resigned from the army; began practising law in Maryland; and was elected to Congress as a Democrat in 1844, 1846, and 1848. In 1853 President Pierce appointed him United States commissioner to China, with plenipotentiary powers. After accomplishing his mission he returned to the United States. In 1859 he was appointed United States minister to Mexico, where he negotiated a treaty for the protection of American citizens. He again held a seat in Congress in 1878–82, and soon after the expiration of his last term was elected governor of Maryland. In 1885–89 he was United States minister to France. He died in Paris, France, April 16, 1898.

McLaughlin, ANDREW CUNNINGHAM, educator; born in Beardstown, Ill., Feb. 14, 1861; graduated at the University of Michigan in 1882, and from its law department in 1885; instructor of Latin in the University of Michigan in 1886–87, and of History in 1887–88; assistant professor in 1888–91; and Professor of American History since 1891. He has edited *Cooley's Principles of Constitutional Law* (3d and revised edition); and *American Historical Review;* and is author of *History of Higher Education in Michigan; Lewis Cass* (in American Statesmen

Series); *Civil Government of Michigan; The History of the American Nation;* etc.

McLaurin, ANSELM JOSEPH, lawyer; born in Brandon, Miss., March 26, 1848; was educated at Summerville Institute; served in the Confederate army during the Civil War; admitted to the Mississippi bar in 1868; and practised in Raleigh, and later in Brandon. He was a member of the State legislature in 1879; Democratic United States Senator in 1894–95 and 1901–07; and governor of Mississippi in 1896–1900.

McLaws, LAFAYETTE, military officer; born in Augusta, Ga., Jan. 15, 1821; graduated at West Point in 1842; remained in the army until 1861, when he joined the Confederates, and became one of the most active of their military leaders. He had served in the war against Mexico. Made a major-general in the Confederate army, he commanded a division under Lee, and surrendered with Johnston's army in April, 1865; was afterwards collector of internal revenue and postmaster in Savannah; and lectured on *The Maryland Campaign.* He died in Savannah, July 24, 1897.

Maclay, EDGAR STANTON, author; born in Foo Chow, China, April 18, 1863; graduated at Syracuse University in 1885; connected with the Brooklyn *Times* and the New York *Tribune,* 1886–96; became light-house keeper on Old Field Point in 1896; and a clerk in the Brooklyn Navy-yard in 1901. He is author of *The History of the United States Navy; Reminiscences of the Old Navy;* the *History of American Privateers;* etc. His reflections on the conduct of Rear-Admiral Schley at Santiago led to the court of inquiry on that officer's actions.

McLean, SIR ALLAN, military officer; born in Scotland, in 1725; was at the capture of Fort Duquesne in 1758; served under Amherst in 1759; and in 1775 came to America again, to fight the colonists. He occupied Quebec late in 1775, and rendered great service during the siege by Montgomery. He commanded the fort at Penobscot in 1779, and was promoted brigadier-general after leaving America. He died in 1784.

McLean, JOHN, jurist; born in Morris county, N. J., March 11, 1785. His father removed first to Virginia, then to Kentucky, and in 1799 settled in Warren county, O. John labored on a farm until he was sixteen years old, receiving a scanty education; studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1807, and was a member of Congress from 1813 to 1816. He was a supporter of Madison's administration, and from 1816 to 1822 was a judge of the Supreme Court of Ohio. In 1822 he was made commissioner of the general land-office, and in 1823 Postmaster-General. In 1830 he became a justice of the United States Supreme Court, and was always known as an advocate for the freedom of the slaves. In the DRED SCOTT CASE (*q. v.*), Judge McLean dissented from the opinion of Chief-Justice Taney. He died in Cincinnati, O., April 4, 1861.

McLellan, ISAAC, poet; born in Portland, Me., May 21, 1806; graduated at Bowdoin College in 1826. During his course there he was a fellow-student of Henry W. Longfellow, Nathaniel Hawthorne, and George B. Cheever. After graduation he studied law and practised in Boston for several years. In 1851 he removed to New York and applied himself to literary work, chiefly poetry and writings on field sports. His publications include *The Year, and Other Poems; The Fall of the Indian; Poems of the Rod and Gun; Haunts of Wild Game; War Poems,* etc. He died in Greenport, Long Island, Aug. 20, 1899.

McLeod, ALEXANDER, clergyman; born on the island of Mull, Scotland, June 12, 1774; came to the United States early in life; graduated at Union College in 1798; ordained in the Reformed Presbyterian Church in 1799; and was pastor of the First Reformed Presbyterian Church of New York till his death. His publications include *Negro Slavery Unjustifiable; View of the Late War,* etc. He died in New York City, Feb. 17, 1833.

McMahon, JOHN VAN LEAR, lawyer; born in Maryland in 1800; graduated at Princeton College in 1817; admitted to the bar in 1821; attained prominence both as a lawyer and as a political speaker; was counsel for the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company for several years. He published *An Historical View of Maryland.* He died in Cumberland, Md., June 15, 1871.

McMaster, JOHN BACH, historian; born

in Brooklyn, N. Y., June 29, 1852; graduated at the College of the City of New York in 1872; employed in civil engineering in 1873–77; instructor in civil engineering at Princeton University in 1877–83; and became Professor of American History in the University of Pennsylvania in the latter year. He has been a prolific producer of historical work of high merit, his best known publications being *A History of the People of the United States* (7 volumes); *Benjamin Franklin as a Man of Letters; With the Fathers; Origin, Meaning, and Application of the Monroe Doctrine; A School History of the United States*, etc.

McMillan, CHARLES, civil engineer; born in Moscow, Russia, March 24, 1841; educated there and in Hamilton, Canada; graduated at Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Troy, N. Y., in 1860; and became assistant engineer of the Brooklyn waterworks; in 1861–65 he was assistant engineer of the Croton waterworks, New York; in 1865–71 Professor of Geodesy and Road Engineering in Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute; in 1871–75 Professor of Civil and Mechanical Engineering in Lehigh University; and in 1875 was called to the chair of Civil Engineering and Applied Mathematics in Princeton University. In 1885 he became editor of *Smith's Topographical Drawing.*

MacMillan, CONWAY, botanist; born in Hillsdale, Mich., Aug. 26, 1867; was educated at the University of Nebraska, and Harvard and Johns Hopkins universities; became assistant in geology in the University of Nebraska in 1886; entomologist to the Nebraska agricultural experiment station in 1887; and instructor in botany in the University of Minnesota in 1888. He is the editor of *Minnesota Botanical Studies.*

McMillin, BENTON, statesman; born in Monroe county, Ky., Sept. 11, 1845; elected a member of the Tennessee legislature in 1874; member of Congress, 1879–99; elected governor of the State in 1899.

McMinnsville, BATTLE NEAR. In the summer of 1862, Generals Bragg and Buell marched in nearly parallel lines eastward towards Chattanooga—the latter north of the Tennessee River, and the former south of it. Bragg won the race, and with fully 40,000 men turned his face towards the Ohio. Bragg divided his force into three corps, commanded respectively by Generals Hardee, Polk, and E. Kirby Smith. The latter was sent to Knoxville, Tenn., while the two former held Chattanooga and its vicinity. Buell disposed his line from Huntsville, Ala., to McMinnsville, Warren co., Tenn. So lay the opposing armies when Kirby Smith left Knoxville to invade Kentucky. Bragg crossed the Tennessee, just above Chattanooga, on Aug. 21, with thirty-six regiments of infantry, five of cavalry, and forty guns. Louisville was his destination. He advanced among the rugged mountains towards Buell's left at McMinnsville as a feint, but fairly flanked the Nationals. This was a cavalry movement, which resulted in a battle there. The horsemen were led by General Forrest, who, for several days, had been hovering around Lebanon, Murfreesboro, and Nashville. Attempting to cut off Buell's communications, he was confronted (Aug. 30) by National cavalry under E. P. Fyffe, of Gen. T. J. Wood's division, who had made a rapid march. After a short struggle the Confederates were routed. Supposing Bragg was aiming at Nashville, Buell took immediate measures to defend that city.

MacMonnies, FREDERICK WILLIAM, sculptor; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Sept. 30, 1863; received a common school education; entered the studio of Augustus St. Gaudens in 1880; studied for four years in the life classes of the Academy of Design and Art Students' League, and completed his art education abroad, studying in Munich in the atelier of Falguière; in the École des Beaux Arts, in Paris, and in the private studio of Antonin Mercié; received the "prix d'atelier," the highest prize open to foreigners; opened a studio of his own in Paris; and in 1896 received the Cross of the Legion of Honor. His principal works are the famous statue of *Bacchante,* which he gave to C. F. McKim, who in 1897 presented it to the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City; the fountain at the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago; the statue of *Nathan Hale,* in City Hall Park, New York; *Fame,* at West Point; *Diana; Pan of Rohallion;* the quadriga for the Brooklyn Memorial Arch; the two bronze eagles

for the entrance to Prospect Park, Brooklyn, etc. In 1903 he was selected to make a statue of General McClellan for Washington, D. C.

McNab, Sir Allan Napier, military officer; born in Niagara, Ontario, Canada, Feb. 19, 1798. His father was the principal aide on the staff of General Simcoe during the Revolutionary War. Allan became a midshipman in 1813, in the British fleet on Lake Ontario, but soon left the navy, joined the army; commanded the British at the battle of Plattsburg; was in the Canadian Parliament in 1820, being chosen speaker of the Assembly. In 1837–38 he commanded the militia on the Niagara frontier, and was a conspicuous actor in crushing the "rebellion." He sent a party to destroy the American vessel *Caroline,* and for his services was knighted (see Canada). After the union of Upper and Lower Canada, in 1841, he became speaker of the legislature. He was prime minister under the governorship of Lord Elgin and Sir Edmund Head, and in 1860 was a member of the legislative council. He died in Toronto, Canada, Aug. 8, 1862.

McNair, Alexander, military officer; born in Derry, Pa., in 1774; served in the whiskey insurrection as a lieutenant in 1794; appointed a lieutenant in the regular army in 1799; mustered out in 1800; removed to Missouri in 1804, where he was appointed United States commissary, and in 1812 adjutant and inspector-general. He was the first governor of Missouri, serving from 1820 to 1824, when he became United States Indian agent. He died in St. Louis, Mo., March 18, 1826.

McNair, Frederick Vallette, naval officer; born in Jenkintown, Pa., Jan. 13, 1839; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in June, 1857; promoted passed midshipman, June, 1860; master, October, 1860; lieutenant, April, 1861; lieutenant-commander, April, 1864; commander, January, 1872; captain, October, 1883; commodore, May, 1895; rear-admiral, 1898. In the latter year he was appointed superintendent of the United States Naval Academy. During the Civil War he took part in many engagements, including the actions at Fort Jackson, Fort St. Philip, and the Chalmette batteries; the capture of New Orleans; the opening of the Mississippi River; and the engagements and surrender at Fort Fisher. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 28, 1900.

McNamara, John, clergyman; born in Dromore, Ireland, Dec. 27, 1824; received a collegiate education and studied theology at the General Theological Seminary in New York City; was ordained in the Protestant Episcopal Church; labored as a missionary in Kansas and later as a pastor in North Platte, Neb. His publications include *Three Years on the Kansas Border;* and *The Black Code of Kansas.* He died in North Platte, Neb., Oct. 24, 1885.

McNeil, John, military officer; born in Halifax, N. S., Feb. 4, 1813; was a hatter in St. Louis about twenty years, and then president of an insurance company; entered the Union service with General Lyon in May, 1861; and was in command of St. Louis, under Frémont. He was made colonel of the 19th Missouri Volunteers Aug. 3, and early in 1862 took command of a cavalry regiment and of a military district in Missouri, in which he distinguished himself by clearing out the guerillas; and was promoted brigadier-general. He assisted in driving the forces under Price out of Missouri in the fall of 1864. He was a commissioner to the Centennial Exposition in 1876 and an Indian inspector in 1878 and 1882. He died in St. Louis, June 8, 1891.

McNeill, George Rockwell, educator; born in Fayetteville, N. C., in 1854; graduated at Davidson College (N. C.) in 1874; principal of a private school in Rowan county, N. C., for nine years; and later became county superintendent and president of the State Association of County Superintendents. He was principal of the male academy at Reidsville, N. C., in 1883–89; president of Lafayette College (Ala.) in 1889–95; president of a female college in 1895–98; and in the latter year again became president of Lafayette College. He died in 1901.

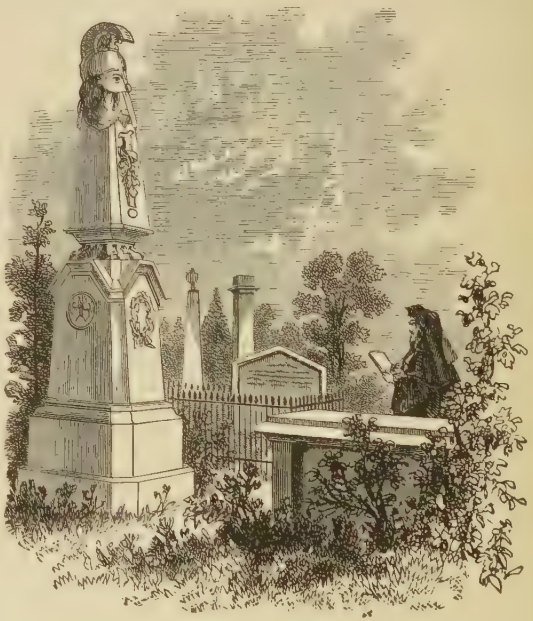
McNiel, John, military officer; born in Hillsboro, N. C., in 1784; entered the army as captain in March, 1812, and was brevetted lieutenant-colonel for his conduct at the battle of Chippewa. The next year he was wounded at the battle of Niagara, or Lundy's Lane, and was brevetted colonel.

In 1830 he resigned his commission, and was appointed, by President Jackson, surveyor of the port of Boston, which office he held until his death, in Washington, D. C., Feb. 23, 1850. His wife was a half-sister of President Pierce.

MACOMB'S MEDAL.

Macomb, ALEXANDER, military officer; born in Detroit, Mich., April 3, 1782; entered the army as cornet of cavalry in 1799, and at the beginning of the war with Great Britain, in 1812, was lieutenant-colonel of engineers and adjutant-general of the army. He had five brothers in that contest. He was transferred to the artillery, and distinguished himself on the Niagara frontier. In January, 1814, he was promoted to brigadier-general, and when General Izard withdrew from the military post on Lake Champlain, in the summer of that year, Macomb was left in chief command of that region. In that capacity he won a victory over the British at Plattsburg, Sept. 11. For his conduct on that occasion he was commissioned a major-general and received thanks and a gold medal from Congress.

On the death of General Brown, in 1828, General Macomb was appointed general-in-chief of the armies of the United States, which post he held at the time of his death, in Washington, D. C., June 25, 1841. His remains were interred, with military honors in the congressional cemetery, Washington, and over them stands a beautiful white marble monument, prop-



MACOMB'S MONUMENT.

erly inscribed. He was author of a treatise on *Martial Law and Courts-Martial* (see PLATTSBURG, BATTLE OF). His son, WILLIAM HENRY (born, June 16, 1818; died, Aug. 12, 1872), entered the navy, as midshipman, in 1834; was engaged against the forts in China in 1856, and in the expedition to Paraguay in 1859, in which he commanded the *Metacomet*. In the Civil War he was active on the Mississippi and on the coast of North Carolina, attaining the rank of commodore in 1862. In 1869 he commanded the steamship *Plymouth*, in the European squadron, and was light-house inspector in 1871.

Macon, NATHANIEL, statesman; born in Warren county, N. C., Dec. 17, 1757; was attending college at Princeton when the Revolutionary War broke out; returned home and volunteered as a private soldier in the company of his brother. He was at the fall of Charleston, the disaster to Gates near Camden, and with Greene in his remarkable retreat across the Carolinas. From 1780 to 1785 he was a member of the North Carolina Assembly, and there opposed the ratification of the national Constitution. From 1791 to 1815 he was a member of Congress, and from 1816 to 1828 United States Senator. He was a warm personal friend of Jefferson and Madison, and his name has been given to one of the counties of North Carolina. John Randolph said of him in his will: "He is the best, purest, and wisest man that I ever knew." Mr. Jefferson called him "The last of the Romans." He selected for his place of burial an untillable ridge, ordered the spot to be marked only by a pile of loose stones, and directed his coffin to be made of plain boards, and to be paid for before his interment. He died at his birthplace, June 29, 1837.

Macon, FORT, CAPTURE OF. This fort, commanding the harbor of Beaufort, N. C., and Bogue Sound, was seized by Governor Ellis early in 1861. Its possession by the government would secure the use of a fine harbor on the Atlantic coast for National vessels engaged in the blockading service. It stood upon a long ridge of sand cast up by the ocean, called Bogue Island. After the capture of NEWBERN (*q. v.*), Burnside sent General Parke to take the fort. A detachment took possession of Beaufort, and a flag was sent to the fort demanding its surrender. The commander of the garrison, a nephew of Jefferson Davis, declared he would not yield until he had "eaten his last biscuit and slain his last horse." On April 11, 1862, Parke began a siege. Batteries were erected on Bogue Island, and gunboats, under Commodore S. Lockwood, co-operated with the troops. The garrison was cut off from all communication with the outside world by land or water. A bombardment was begun on the morning of April 25. The fort responded with great spirit and vigor, and a tremendous artillery duel was kept up for several hours, when the fort displayed a white flag. Before 10 A.M. on the 26th the fort was in possession of the Nationals, with about 500 prisoners.

McPherson, EDWARD, author; born in Gettysburg, Pa., July 31, 1830; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1848; became a lawyer, but abandoned this profession and took up journalism in Gettysburg; was a Republican Representative in Congress in 1859–63; clerk of the House in 1863–73, 1881–83, and 1889–91. His publications include *Political History of the United States during the Great Rebellion; The Political History of the United States during Reconstruction;* and a *Hand-Book of Politics.* He died in Gettysburg, Pa., Dec. 14, 1895.

McPherson, JAMES BIRDSEYE, military officer; born in Sandusky, O., Nov. 14, 1828; graduated at West Point in 1853, the first in his class, and entered the engineer corps. He was made captain in August, 1861, and brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1862. He was aide to General Halleck late in 1861, and chief engineer of the Army of the Tennessee, doing good service at Fort Donelson, Shiloh, Corinth, and Iuka Springs. In December, 1862, he commanded the 17th Corps with great ability, having been made major-general in October. He did admirable service, under Grant, in the Vicksburg campaign (1863), and was made brigadier-general in the United States army in August. He was also active and efficient in the Atlanta campaign, in 1864, distinguishing himself

everywhere as commander of the Army of the Tennessee. He was killed while reconnoitring in the Confederate lines, July 22, 1864.

JAMES BIRDSEYE McPHERSON.

McPherson, JOHN RODERIC, statesman; born in Livingston county, N. Y., May 9, 1833; removed to New Jersey in 1858; member of the State Senate, 1870–73; United States Senator, 1883–95. He died in Jersey City, Oct. 8, 1897.

McPherson, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Philadelphia in 1751; was appointed a cadet in the British army at the age of thirteen; and became adjutant of a regiment. He joined the Continental army at the close of 1779, and was appointed to the command of a partisan corps of cavalry in 1781. He was naval officer of Philadelphia from 1793 until his death, Nov. 5, 1813. He was made brigadier-general of the provisional army in 1798. His brother, JOHN, was aide to General Montgomery, and perished with him at the siege of QUEBEC (*q. v.*).

McPherson, FORT, a modern protective and garrisoned military post of the United States; established about 4 miles from Atlanta, Ga., and named in honor of GEN. JAMES B. MCPHERSON (*q. v.*).

McRee, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Wilmington, N. C., Dec. 13, 1787; graduated at West Point in 1805, and entered the corps of engineers. He was major in July, 1812; became chief engineer on the northern frontier, and was brevetted colonel for services in defence of Fort Erie in August, 1814. He was sent to France by Major Thayer in 1816, to collect scientific and military information for the benefit of the Military Academy at West Point, of which Thayer was then superintendent. Promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1818, he resigned in 1819, and was surveyor of public lands in the Mississippi region from 1825 to 1832. He died in St. Louis, Mo., Sept. 10, 1832.

McSherry, JAMES, author; born in Frederick county, Md., July 29, 1819; graduated at St. Mary's College, Emmettsburg, Md., in 1828; admitted to the bar in 1840; began practice in Gettysburg, but removed to Frederick City, where he engaged in his profession till his death. His publications include *History of Maryland, 1634–1848; Père Jean, or the Jesuit Missionary,* etc. He died in Frederick City, Md., July 13, 1869.

MacVeagh, WAYNE, diplomatist; born in Phœnixville, Pa., April 19, 1833; graduated at Yale College in 1853; and admitted to the bar in 1856. He was district attorney for Chester county, Pa., in 1859–64; entered the Union army as captain of cavalry when the invasion of Pennsylvania was threatened in September, 1862; was United States minister to Turkey in 1870–71; member of the Pennsylvania constitutional convention in 1872–73; and president of the MacVeagh commission to Louisiana in 1877. In 1881 he was appointed United States Attorney-General, but on the death of President Garfield he resigned, and resumed law practice in Philadelphia. He was ambassador to Italy in 1893–97; and represented the United States in the Venezuela case at The Hague arbitration tribunal in 1903.

Macready, WILLIAM CHARLES, English actor; born March 3, 1793; died April 29, 1873. See FORREST, EDWIN; ASTOR PLACE RIOT.

Macy, JESSE, educator; born in Henry county, Ind., June 21, 1842; graduated at Iowa College in 1870; became Professor of Constitutional History and Political Science at Iowa College in 1885. He is the author of *Civil Government in Iowa; A Government Text-Book for Iowa Schools; Our Government; Institutional Beginnings in a Western State,* etc.

Madison, JAMES, fourth President of the United States, from March 4, 1809, to March 4, 1817; Republican; born in Port Conway, Va., March 16, 1751; graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1771, studied law, and in 1776 was elected to a seat in the Virginia Assembly. He became a member of the executive council in 1778, and was sent to Congress in 1779. In that body he continually opposed the issue of paper money by the States. He was active until the peace in 1783, when he retired to private life, but was drawn out again as a delegate to the convention that framed the national Constitution. In that body he took a prominent part in the debates, and wrote some of the papers in *The Federalist*, which advocated the adoption of that instrument. He was also in the Virginia Convention in 1788 that ratified the Constitution. A member of Congress from 1789 to 1797, Madison did much in the establishment of the nation on a firm foundation. Uniting with the Republican party, he was a moderate opponent of the administration of Washington. He declined the post of Secretary of State, vacated by Jefferson in 1793, which Washington offered him. He presented resolutions to the Virginia legislature in 1798, drawn by him, on the basis of a series drawn by Jefferson for the Kentucky legislature, which contained the essence of the doctrine of State supremacy. They were adopted. In 1801 he was appointed Secretary of State, which office he held until his inauguration as President. He very soon became involved in disputes about impressment with the government of Great Britain, and, in 1812, was compelled to declare war against that nation (see below). He was enabled to proclaim a treaty of peace in February, 1815. Retiring from office in 1817, he passed the remainder of his days on his estate at Montpelier. His accomplished wife, Dorothy (commonly called "Dolly"), shared his joys and sorrows from the time of their marriage in Philadelphia in 1794 until his death, June 28, 1836, and survived him until July 2, 1849. She was a long time among the leaders in Washington society.

MONTPELIER, THE HOME OF MADISON.

President Madison, seeing that the capital was in danger when victory remained with the British at BLADENSBURG (*q. v.*).

sent messengers to his wife, advising her to fly to a place of safety. She had already been apprised of the disaster on the field. On receiving the message from her husband, Aug. 24, 1814, between 2 and 3 P.M., she ordered her carriage and sent away in a wagon silver plate and other valuables, to be deposited in the Bank of Maryland. In one of the rooms hung a full-length portrait of Washington, painted by Stuart. While anxiously waiting for the arrival of her husband, she took measures for preserving the picture, when, finding the process of unscrewing the frame from the wall too tedious, she had it broken in pieces, and the canvas was removed from the stretcher with her own hands. Just as she had accomplished so much, two gentlemen from New York (Jacob Barker and R. G. L. De Peyster) entered the room. The picture was lying on the floor. The sound of approaching troops was heard. "Save that picture," said Mrs. Madison to the two gentlemen. "Save it if possible; if not possible, destroy it; under no circumstances allow it

MRS. MADISON.

to fall into the hands of the British." Then, snatching up the precious parchment which bore the engrossed copy of the Declaration of Independence and the autographs of the signers, which she had also resolved to save, she hastened to the carriage, with her sister and her husband, and was borne away to a place of safety beyond the Potomac. Barker and De Peyster rolled up the picture, and, with it, accompanied a portion of the retreating army, and so saved it. That picture was left at a farm-house, and a few weeks afterwards Mr. Barker restored it to Mrs. Madison. It now hangs in the Blue Room of the White House in Washington. The revered parchment is still preserved by the government.

Message on British Aggressions.—On June 1, 1812, President Madison sent to Congress the following message detailing the existing relations between the United States and Great Britain:

WASHINGTON, *June 1, 1812.*

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States,—I communicate to Congress certain documents, being a continuation of those heretofore laid before them on the subject of our affairs with Great Britain.

Without going back beyond the renewal in 1803 of the war in which Great Britain is engaged, and omitting unrepaired wrongs of inferior magnitude, the conduct of her government presents a series of acts hostile to the United States as an independent and neutral nation.

British cruisers have been in the continued practice of violating the American flag on the great highway of nations, and of seizing and carrying off persons sailing under it, not in the exercise of a belligerent right founded on the law of nations against an enemy, but of a municipal prerogative over British subjects. British jurisdiction is thus extended to neutral vessels in a situation where no laws can operate but the law of nations and the laws of the country to which the vessels belong, and a self-redress is assumed which, if British subjects were wrongfully detained and alone concerned, is that substitution of force for a resort to the responsible sovereign which falls within the definition of war. Could the seizure of British subjects in such cases be regarded as within the exercise of a belligerent

right, the acknowledged laws of war, which forbid an article of captured property to be adjudged without a regular investigation before a competent tribunal, would imperiously demand the fairest trial where the sacred rights of persons were at issue. In place of such a trial these rights are subjected to the will of every petty commander.

The practice, hence, is so far from affecting British subjects alone that, under the pretext of searching for these, thousands of American citizens, under the safeguard of public law and of their national flag, have been torn from their country and from everything dear to them; have been dragged on board ships-of-war of a foreign nation and exposed, under the severities of their discipline, to be exiled to the most distant and deadly climes, to risk their lives in the battles of their oppressors, and to be the melancholy instruments of taking away those of their own brethren.

Against this crying enormity, which Great Britain would be so prompt to avenge if committed against herself, the United States have in vain exhausted remonstrances and expostulations, and that no proof might be wanting of their conciliatory dispositions, and no pretext left for a continuance of the practice, the British government was formally assured of the readiness of the United States to enter into arrangements such as could not be rejected if the recovery of British subjects were the real and the sole object. The communication passed without effect.

British cruisers have been in the practice also of violating the rights and the peace of our coasts. They hover over and harass our entering and departing commerce. To the most insulting pretensions they have added the most lawless proceedings in our very harbors, and have wantonly spilled American blood within the sanctuary of our territorial jurisdiction. The principles and rules enforced by that nation, when a neutral nation, against armed vessels of belligerents hovering near her coasts and disturbing her commerce are well known. When called on, nevertheless, by the United States to punish the greater offences committed by her own vessels, her government has bestowed on their commanders additional marks of honor and confidence.

Under pretended blockades, without the presence of an adequate force and sometimes without the practicability of applying one, our commerce has been plundered in every sea, the great staples of our country have been cut off from their legitimate markets, and a destructive blow aimed at our agricultural and maritime interests. In aggravation of these predatory measures they have been considered as in force from the dates of their notification, a retrospective effect being thus added, as has been done in other important cases, to the unlawfulness of the course pursued. And to render the outrage the more signal, these mock blockades have been reiterated and enforced in the face of official communications from the British government declaring as the true definition of a legal blockade "that particular ports must be actually invested and previous warning given to vessels bound to them not to enter."

Not content with these occasional expedients for laying waste our neutral trade, the cabinet of Britain resorted at length to the sweeping system of blockades, under the name of orders in council, which has been moulded and managed as might best suit its political views, its commercial jealousies, or the avidity of British cruisers.

To our remonstrances against the complicated and transcendent injustice of this innovation the first reply was that the orders were reluctantly adopted by Great Britain as a necessary retaliation on decrees of her enemy proclaiming a general blockade of the British Isles at a time when the naval force of that enemy dared not issue from his own ports. She was reminded without effect that her own prior blockades, unsupported by an adequate naval force actually applied and continued, were a bar to this plea; that executed edicts against millions of our property could not be retaliation on edicts confessedly impossible to be executed; that retaliation, to be just, should fall on the party setting the guilty example, not on an innocent party which was not even chargeable with an acquiescence in it.

When deprived of this flimsy veil for a prohibition of our trade with her enemy

by the repeal of his prohibition of our trade with Great Britain, her cabinet, instead of a corresponding repeal or a practical discontinuance of its orders, formally avowed a determination to persist in them against the United States until the markets of her enemy should be laid open to British products, thus asserting an obligation on a neutral power to require one belligerent to encourage by its internal regulations the trade of another belligerent, contradicting her own practice towards all nations, in peace as well as in war, and betraying the insincerity of those professions which inculcated a belief that, having resorted to her orders with regret, she was anxious to find an occasion for putting an end to them.

Abandoning still more all respect for the neutral rights of the United States and for its own consistency, the British government now demands as prerequisites to a repeal of its orders as they relate to the United States that a formality should be observed in the repeal of the French decrees nowise necessary to their termination nor exemplified by British usage, and that the French repeal, besides including that portion of the decrees which operates within a territorial jurisdiction, as well as that which operates on the high seas, against the commerce of the United States should not be a single and special repeal in relation to the United States, but should be extended to whatever other neutral nations unconnected with them that may be affected by those decrees. And as an additional insult, they are called on for a formal disavowal of conditions and pretensions advanced by the French government for which the United States are so far from having made themselves responsible that, in official explanations which have been published to the world, and in a correspondence of the American minister at London with the British minister for foreign affairs, such a responsibility was explicitly and emphatically disclaimed.

It has become, indeed, sufficiently certain that the commerce of the United States is to be sacrificed, not as interfering with the belligerent rights of Great Britain; not as supplying the wants of her enemies, which she herself supplies, but as interfering with the monopoly which she covets for her own commerce and navigation. She carries on a war against the lawful commerce of a friend that she may the better carry on a commerce with an enemy—a commerce polluted by the forgeries and perjuries which are for the most part the only passports by which it can succeed.

Anxious to make every experiment short of the last resort of injured nations, the United States have withheld from Great Britain, under successive modifications, the benefits of a free intercourse with their market, the loss of which could not but outweigh the profits accruing from her restrictions of our commerce with other nations. And to entitle these experiments to the more favorable consideration they were so framed as to enable her to place her adversary under the exclusive operation of them. To these appeals her government has been equally inflexible, as if willing to make sacrifices of every sort rather than yield to the claims of justice or renounce the errors of a false pride. Nay, so far were the attempts carried to overcome the attachment of the British cabinet to its unjust edicts that it received every encouragement within the competency of the executive branch of our government to expect that a repeal of them would be followed by a war between the United States and France, unless the French edicts should also be repealed. Even this communication, although silencing forever the plea of a disposition in the United States to acquiesce in those edicts originally the sole plea for them, received no attention.

If no other proof existed of a predetermination of the British government against a repeal of its orders, it might be found in the correspondence of the minister plenipotentiary of the United States at London and the British secretary for foreign affairs in 1810, on the question whether the blockade of May, 1806, was considered as in force or as not in force. It had been ascertained that the French government, which urged this blockade as the ground of its Berlin decree, was willing in the event of its removal to repeal that decree, which, being followed by alternate repeals of the other offensive edicts, might abolish the whole system on

both sides. This inviting opportunity for accomplishing an object so important to the United States, and professed so often to be the desire of both the belligerents, was made known to the British government. As that government admits that an actual application of an adequate force is necessary to the existence of a legal blockade, and it was notorious that if such a force had ever been applied its long discontinuance had annulled the blockade in question, there could be no sufficient objection on the part of Great Britain to a formal revocation of it, and no imaginable objection to a declaration of the fact that the blockade did not exist. The declaration would have been consistent with her avowed principles of blockade, and would have enabled the United States to demand from France the pledged repeal of her decrees, either with success, in which case the way would have been opened for a general repeal of the belligerent edicts, or without success, in which case the United States would have been justified in turning their measures exclusively against France. The British government would, however, neither rescind the blockade, nor declare its non-existence, nor permit its non-existence to be inferred and affirmed by the American plenipotentiary. On the contrary, by representing the blockade to be comprehended in the orders in council, the United States were compelled so to regard it in their subsequent proceedings.

There was a period when a favorable change in the policy of the British cabinet was justly considered as established. The minister plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majesty here proposed an adjustment of the differences more immediately endangering the harmony of the two countries. The proposition was accepted with the promptitude and cordiality corresponding with the invariable professions of this government. A foundation appeared to be laid for a sincere and lasting reconciliation. The prospect, however, quickly vanished. The whole proceeding was disavowed by the British government without any explanations which could at that time repress the belief that the disavowal proceeded from a spirit of hostility to the commercial rights and prosperity of the United States; and it has since come into proof that at the very moment when the public minister was holding the language of friendship and inspiring confidence in the sincerity of the negotiations with which he was charged, a secret agent of his government was employed in intrigues having for their object a subversion of our government and a dismemberment of our happy Union.

In reviewing the conduct of Great Britain towards the United States our attention is necessarily drawn to the warfare just renewed by the savages on one of our extensive frontiers—a warfare which is known to spare neither age nor sex and to be distinguished by features peculiarly shocking to humanity. It is difficult to account for the activity and combinations which have for some time been developing themselves among tribes in constant intercourse with British traders and garrisons without connecting their hostility with that influence and without recollecting the authenticated examples of such interpositions heretofore furnished by the officers and agents of that government.

Such is the spectacle of injuries and indignities which have been heaped on our country, and such the crisis which its unexampled forbearance and conciliatory efforts have not been able to avert. It might at least have been expected that an enlightened nation, if less urged by moral obligations or invited by friendly dispositions on the part of the United States, would have found in its true interest alone a sufficient motive to respect their rights and their tranquillity on the high seas; that an enlarged policy would have favored that free and general circulation of commerce in which the British nation is at all times interested, and which in times of war is the best alleviation of its calamities to herself as well as to other belligerents; and more especially that the British cabinet would not, for the sake of a precarious and surreptitious intercourse with hostile markets, have persevered in a course of measures which necessarily put at hazard the invaluable market of a great and growing country, disposed to cultivate the mutual advantages of an active commerce.

Other counsels have prevailed. Our moderation and conciliation have had no other effect than to encourage persever-

ance and to enlarge pretensions. We behold our seafaring citizens still the daily victims of lawless violence, committed on the great common highway of nations, even within sight of the country which owes them protection. We behold our vessels, freighted with the products of our soil and industry, or returning with the honest proceeds of them, wrested from their lawful destinations, confiscated by prize courts no longer the organs of public law, but the instruments of arbitrary edicts, and their unfortunate crews dispersed and lost, or forced or inveigled in British ports into British fleets, while arguments are employed in support of these aggressions which have no foundation but in a principle equally supporting a claim to regulate our external commerce in all cases whatsoever.

We behold, in fine, on the side of Great Britain a state of war against the United States, and on the side of the United States a state of peace towards Great Britain.

Whether the United States shall continue passive under these progressive usurpations and these accumulating wrongs; or, opposing force to force, in defence of their national rights, shall commit a just cause into the hands of the Almighty Disposer of Events, avoiding all connections which might entangle it in the contest or views of other powers, and preserving a constant readiness to concur in an honorable re-establishment of peace and friendship, is a solemn question which the Constitution wisely confides to the legislative department of the government. In recommending it to their early deliberations, I am happy in the assurance that the decision will be worthy the enlightened and patriotic councils of a virtuous, a free, and a powerful nation.

Having presented this view of the relations of the United States with Great Britain, and of the solemn alternative growing out of them, I proceed to remark that the communications last made to Congress on the subject of our relations with France will have shown that, since the revocation of her decrees, as they violated the neutral rights of the United States, her government has authorized illegal captures by its privateers and public ships, and that other outrages have been practised on our vessels and our citizens. It will have been seen also that no indemnity had been provided or satisfactorily pledged for the extensive spoliations committed under the violent and retrospective orders of the French government against the property of our citizens seized within the jurisdiction of France. I abstain at this time from recommending to the consideration of Congress definitive measures with respect to that nation, in the expectation that the result of unclosed discussions between our minister plenipotentiary at Paris and the French government will speedily enable Congress to decide with greater advantage on the course due to the rights, the interests, and the honor of our country.

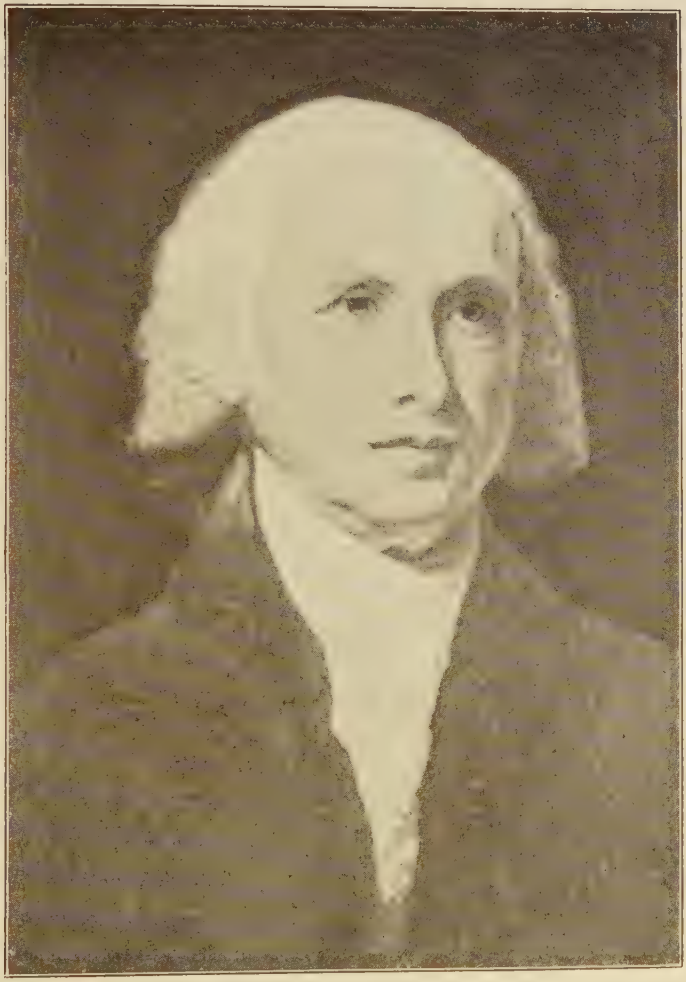
Proclamation of War.—

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

A PROCLAMATION.

Whereas the Congress of the United States, by virtue of the constituted authority vested in them, have declared by their act bearing date the 18th day of the present month that war exists between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and the dependencies thereof and the United States of America and their Territories:

Now, therefore, I, James Madison, President of the United States of America, do hereby proclaim the same to all whom it may concern; and I do specially enjoin on all persons holding offices, civil or military, under the authority of the United States that they be vigilant and zealous in discharging the duties respectively incident thereto; and I do moreover exhort all the good people of the United States, as they love their country, as they value the precious heritage derived from the virtue and valor of their fathers, as they feel the wrongs which have forced on them the last resort of injured nations, and as they consult the best means under the blessings of Divine Providence of abridging its calamities, that they exert themselves, in preserving order, in promoting concord, in maintaining the authority and efficacy of the laws, and in supporting and invigorating all the measures which may



James Madison

be adopted by the constituted authorities for obtaining a speedy, a just, and an honorable peace.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed to these presents.

[SEAL.] Done at the city of Washington, the 19th day of June, 1812, and of the Independence of the United States the thirty-sixth.

JAMES MADISON.

By the President:

JAMES MONROE, *Secretary of State.*

Message on Peace Treaty.—

WASHINGTON, *Feb. 18, 1815.*

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States,—I lay before Congress copies of the treaty of peace and amity between the United States and his Britannic Majesty, which was signed by the commissioners of both parties at Ghent on Dec. 24, 1814, and the ratifications of which have been duly exchanged.

While performing this act I congratulate you and our constituents upon an event which is highly honorable to the nation, and terminates with peculiar felicity a campaign signalized by the most brilliant successes.

The late war, although reluctantly declared by Congress, had become a necessary resort to assert the rights and independence of the nation. It has been waged with a success which is the natural result of the wisdom of the legislative councils, of the patriotism of the people, of the public spirit of the militia, and of the valor of the military and naval forces of the country. Peace, at all times a blessing, is peculiarly welcome, therefore, at a period when the causes for the war have ceased to operate, when the government has demonstrated the efficiency of its powers of defence, and when the nation can review its conduct without regret and without reproach.

I recommend to your care and beneficence the gallant men whose achievements in every department of the military service, on the land and on the water, have so essentially contributed to the honor of the American name and to the restoration of peace. The feelings of conscious patriotism and worth will animate such men under every change of fortune and pursuit, but their country performs a duty to itself when it bestows those testimonials of approbation and applause which are at once the reward and the incentive to great actions.

The reduction of the public expenditures to the demands of a peace establishment will doubtless engage the immediate attention of Congress. There are, however, important considerations which forbid a sudden and general revocation of the measures that have been produced by the war. Experience has taught us that neither the pacific dispositions of the American people nor the pacific character of their political institutions can altogether exempt them from that strife which appears beyond the ordinary lot of nations to be incident to the actual period of the world, and the same faithful monitor demonstrates that a certain degree of preparation for war is not only indispensable to avert disasters in the onset, but affords also the best security for the continuance of peace. The wisdom of Congress will therefore, I am confident, provide for the maintenance of an adequate regular force; for the gradual advancement of the naval establishment; for improving all the means of harbor defence; for adding discipline to the distinguished bravery of the militia, and for cultivating the military art in its essential branches, under the liberal patronage of government.

The resources of our country were at all times competent to the attainment of every national object, but they will now be enriched and invigorated by the activity which peace will introduce into all the scenes of domestic enterprise and labor. The provision that has been made for the public creditors during the present session of Congress must have a decisive effect in the establishment of the public credit both at home and abroad. The reviving interests of commerce will claim the legislative attention at the earliest opportunity, and such regulations will, I trust, be seasonably devised as shall secure to the United States their just proportion of the navigation of the world. The most liberal policy towards other nations, if met by corresponding dispositions, will in this respect be found the

most beneficial policy towards ourselves. But there is no subject that can enter with greater force and merit into the deliberations of Congress than a consideration of the means to preserve and promote the manufactures which have sprung into existence and attained an unparalleled maturity throughout the United States during the period of the European wars. This source of national independence and wealth I anxiously recommend, therefore, to the prompt and constant guardianship of Congress.

The termination of the legislative sessions will soon separate you, fellow-citizens, from each other, and restore you to your constituents. I pray you to bear with you the expressions of my sanguine hope that the peace which has just been declared will not only be the foundation of the most friendly intercourse between the United States and Great Britain, but that it will also be productive of happiness and harmony in every section of our beloved country. The influence of your precepts and example must be everywhere powerful, and while we accord in grateful acknowledgments for the protection which Providence has bestowed upon us, let us never cease to inculcate obedience to the laws and fidelity to the Union as constituting the palladium of the national independence and prosperity.

Madoc. Welsh records and traditions declare that Madoc, a son of Owen Gwynneth, Prince of North Wales, disgusted with the domestic contentions about the rightful successor of his father, went on a voyage of discovery, with well-manned ships and many followers, about the year 1170; that he sailed westward from Ireland and discovered a fruitful country; that, returning, he fitted out a squadron of ten vessels and filled them with a colony of men, women, and children of his country, and with these sailed for the fair land he had found. The expedition was never heard of afterwards. Travellers in the Mississippi Valley and westward of it assert that the Mandans and other Indians who are nearly white have many Welsh words in their language. Allusions to this fact have been made by early and late writers, and it is suggested that the word Mandan is a corruption of Madawgwys, the name applied to the followers of Madawc or Madoc. The traditions of the southern Indians, even as far south as Peru, that the elements of civilization were introduced among them by a white person, who came from the north, favor the theory that the light-colored Indians of our continent have a mixture of Welsh blood, as they have of Welsh language. Until the translation of the Icelandic chronicles, the Welsh historians claimed for their countrymen the honor of being the discoverers and first European settlers of America. Southey made Madoc the subject of a poem.

Magellan, Ferdinando, navigator; born in Oporto, Portugal, in 1470; after serving long in the Portuguese navy, went to Spain and persuaded the authorities there that the Molucca or Spice Islands, which they coveted, might be reached by sailing westward, and so come within the pope's gift of lands westward of the Azores (see Alexander VI.). Magellan was sent in that direction with five ships and 236 men. After touching at Brazil,

FERDINANDO MAGELLAN.

he went down the coast and discovered and passed through the strait which bears his name, calling it the Strait of the Eleven Thousand Virgins. He passed into the South Sea, discovered by Nuñez

(see CABEZA DE VACA), and, on account of its general calmness, he named it the Pacific Ocean. Crossing it, he discovered the Philippine Islands, eastward of the China Sea, where he was killed by the natives, April 17, 1521. The expedition was reduced to one ship. In that the survivors sailed across the Indian Ocean and around the Cape of Good Hope, and reached Spain, Sept. 6, 1522. That ship, the *Victoria*, was the first that ever circumnavigated the globe.

Magna Charta, the Great Charter, whose fundamental parts were derived from Saxon charters, continued by Henry I. and his successors. On Nov. 20, 1214, the Archbishop of Canterbury and the barons met at St. Edmondsbury. On Jan. 6, 1215, they presented demands to King John, who deferred his answer. On May 19 they were censured by the pope. On May 24 they marched to London, and the King had to yield. The charter was settled by John at Runnymede, near Windsor, June 15, 1215, and often confirmed by Henry III. and his successors. The last grand charter was granted in 1224 by Edward I. The original manuscript charter is lost. The finest manuscript copy, which is at Lincoln, was reproduced by photographs in the *National Manuscripts*, published by the British government, 1865. For the complete text see GREAT CHARTER.

Magruder, JOHN BANKHEAD, military officer; born in Winchester, Va., Aug. 15, 1810; graduated at West Point in 1830; served in the war against Mexico; joined the Confederates in 1861, and commanded in the defence of Richmond in the summer of 1862 as brigadier and major-general. In the fall of that year he commanded the Confederate forces in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, and was in command of the expedition against the Nationals at GALVESTON (*q. v.*). He died in Houston, Tex., Feb. 19, 1871.

Maguaga, BATTLE AT. After the evacuation of Canada in 1812, General Hull sent 600 men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Miller, to repair the misfortunes of Van Horne and afford a competent escort for Captain Brush and the army supplies under his charge at the Raisin River.

MAGUAGA BATTLE-GROUND.

When the troops were placed in marching order, Lieutenant-Colonel Miller said to the Ohio militia: "Soldiers, we are now going to meet the enemy and beat them. The reverses of the 5th must be repaired. The blood of our brethren, spilt by the savages, must be avenged. I shall lead you. You shall not disgrace yourselves nor me. Every man who shall leave the ranks or fall back, without orders, shall

be instantly put to death. I charge the officers to execute this order." Turning to the veterans of the 4th Regiment of Regulars, he said: "My brave soldiers, you will add another victory to that of Tippecanoe—another laurel to that gained on the Wabash last fall. If there is now any man in the ranks of the detachment who fears to meet the enemy, let him fall out and stay behind!" They all cried out, "I'll not stay! I'll not stay!" and, led by Miller, they pressed southward, in an order ready for battle at any moment, until, about 4 A.M. on Aug. 9, they reached the vicinity of Maguaga, 14 miles below Detroit. Spies had led the way, under Major Maxwell, followed by a vanguard of forty men, under Captain Snelling, of the 4th Regiment. The infantry moved in two columns, about 200 yards apart. The cavalry kept the road in the centre, in double file; the artillery followed, and flank guards of riflemen marched at proper distances. In the Oak Woods, at Maguaga, near the banks of the Detroit, they received from an ambush of British and Indians, under Major Muir and Tecumseh, a terrible volley. This was a detachment sent over from Fort Malden by General Proctor to repeat the tragedy at Brownstown, cut off the communication between the Raisin and Detroit, and capture Brush and his stores. Snelling, in the advance, returned the fire and maintained his position until Miller came up with the main body. These were instantly formed in battle order, and, with a shout, the gallant young commander and his men fell upon the foe. At the same time, a 6-pounder poured in a storm of grape-shot that made sad havoc. The battle soon became general, when, closely pressed in front and rear, the British and Canadians fled, leaving Tecumseh and his warriors to bear the brunt of battle. The white men gained their boats as quickly as possible and sped across the river to Fort Malden. The Indians soon broke and fled also, pursued by the impetuous Snelling more than 2 miles, on a powerful horse, with a few of the cavalry. The rout and victory were complete. The Americans lost eighteen killed and fifty-seven wounded. Miller, though injured by a fall from his horse, wished to push on to the Raisin, but Hull sent a peremptory order for the whole detachment to return to Detroit. The British were gathering in force at Sandwich, and threatening the fort and village of Detroit.

Maguire, MATTHEW, socialist; born in New York in 1850; became a machinist; and has been active in organizing trade unions. He affiliated with the Greenback party, and later on with the Socialist Labor party. He was the candidate of his party for Vice-President of the United States in 1896, and for governor of New Jersey in 1898.

Mahan, ALFRED TAYLOR, naval officer and author; born in West Point, N. Y., Sept. 27, 1840; son of Dennis Hart Mahan, for many years Professor of Military Engineering in the United States Military Academy; graduated at the Naval Academy in 1859; promoted lieutenant, 1861;

ALFRED TAYLOR MAHAN.

lieutenant-commander, 1865; commander, 1872; and captain, 1885. After the Civil War he served in the South Atlantic, Pacific, Asiatic, and European squadrons. During 1886–93 he was president of the Naval War College, at Newport, R. I.; in 1893–96 was in command of the United States protected cruiser *Chicago;* and was retired at his own request, Nov. 17, 1896. During the war with Spain he was recalled to active service and made a member of the naval advisory board, and in 1899 President McKinley appointed him a delegate to the peace conference at The Hague. Captain Mahan is known the world over for his

publications on naval subjects, and particularly on naval strategy. He was dined by Queen Victoria; honored with the degree of LL.D. by Cambridge, Oxford, and McGill universities; and had his *Influence of Sea Power in History* translated by the German Naval Department and supplied to all the public libraries, schools, and government institutions in the German Empire. Besides a large number of review and magazine articles, he has published *The Gulf and Inland Waters; Influence of Sea Power upon History; Influence of Sea Power upon the French Revolution and Empire; Life of Admiral Farragut; Life of Nelson; The Interest of the United States in Sea Power.* See Captain Mahan's article on NAVAL SHIPS.

Mahan, ASA, clergyman; born in Vernon, N. Y., Nov. 9, 1800; graduated at Hamilton College in 1824, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1827; was ordained in the Presbyterian Church in 1829. In 1835 he turned his attention to education; was president of Oberlin College till 1850, and of Cleveland University, Cleveland, O., till 1855. His publications include *Critical History of the late American War,* etc. He died in Eastbourne, England, April 4, 1889.

Mahan, DENNIS HART, engineer; born in New York City, April 2, 1802; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1824; instructor of engineering in that institution till 1826; was then sent abroad by the War Department to study European engineering and military institutions. Returning to the United States he became Professor of Engineering at West Point from 1830 till his death. He died near Stony Point, N. Y., Sept. 16, 1871.

Mahaqua. See MOHAWK INDIANS.

Mahone, WILLIAM, statesman; born in Southampton county, Va., Dec. 1, 1826; entered the Confederate army in 1861; took part in the capture of the Norfolk navy-yard and in most of the battles in Virginia, where he won the sobriquet of "The Hero of the Crater"; United States Senator from 1881 to 1887. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 8, 1895.

Maine, STATE OF. This most easterly State in the Union was admitted in 1820. Its shores were first visited by Europeans under Bartholomew Gosnold (1602) and Martin Pring (1603), though it is possible they were seen by Cabot (1498) and Verrazano (1524). The French, under De Monts, wintered near the site of Calais, on the St. Croix (1604–5), and took possession of the Sagadahock, or Kennebec, River. Captain Weymouth was there in 1605, and kidnapped some of the natives; and in 1607 the Plymouth Company sent emigrants to settle there, but they did

SEAL OF THE STATE OF MAINE.

not remain long. A French mission established at Mount Desert was broken up by SAMUEL ARGALL (*q. v.*) in 1613, and the next year Captain Smith, landing first at Monhegan Island, explored the coast of Maine. The whole region of Maine, and far southward, westward, and eastward, was included in the charter of the Plymouth Company, and in 1621 the company, having granted the country east of the St. Croix to SIR WILLIAM ALEXANDER (*q. v.*), established that river as the eastern boundary of Maine. Monhegan Island was first settled (1622) and next Saco (1623); and in 1629 the Plymouth Company, perceiving its own dissolution to be inevitable, parcelled out the territory in small grants. In the course of three years the whole coast had been thus disposed of as far east as the Penobscot River. East of that river was claimed by the French, and was a subject of dispute for a long time.

When the Plymouth Company dissolved (1635) and divided the American territory, Sir Ferdinando Gorges took the whole region between the Piscataqua and

MONHEGAN ISLAND.

the Kennebec, and received a formal charter for it from Charles I. in 1639, when the region was called the province of Maine, in compliment to the Queen, who owned the province of Maine in France. In 1636 Gorges sent over his nephew, William Gorges, as governor of his domain, and he established his government at Saco, where, indeed, there had been an organized government since 1623, when Robert Gorges was governor under the Plymouth Company. In 1639 Sir Ferdinando was appointed governor-general of New England, and his son Thomas was sent as lieutenant to administer the laws in 1640. He established himself at Agamenticus (now York), when, in 1642, the city called Gorgeana was incorporated. There the first representative government in Maine was established (1640). On the death of Sir Ferdinando (1647) the province of Maine descended to his heirs, and was placed under four jurisdictions. Massachusetts, fearing this sort of dismemberment of the colony might cause the fragments to fall into the hands of the French, made claim to the territory under its charter. Many of the people of Maine preferred to be under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and in 1652 a large number of the freeholders in five towns took the oath of allegiance to the Bay State. The latter province then assumed supreme rule in Maine, and continued it until the restoration of the Stuarts (1660), when Charles II., on the petition of the heirs of Gorges, sent over a commission to re-establish the authority of the grantees. Massachusetts, after long resistance, purchased the interests (1677) of the claimants for £12,000 sterling.

THE OLD JAIL AT YORK.

In 1674 the Dutch conquered the territory eastward from the Penobscot, including that of Acadia and Nova Scotia;

and in 1676 Cornelius Steenwyck was appointed governor of the conquered territory by the Dutch West India Company. Settlers from Boston soon afterwards expelled the Dutch. Meanwhile the horrors of King Philip's War had extended to that region, and in the space of three months 100 persons were murdered. Then came disputes arising out of the claims of the Duke of York (to whom Charles II. had given New Netherland) to the country between the Kennebec and St. Croix rivers, which in 1683 had been constituted Cornwall county, of the province of New York, over which Sir EDMUND ANDROS (*q. v.*) was made governor. Massachusetts, however, continued to hold possession of the whole province of Maine, excepting at Sagadahock and Pemaquid. But when the duke became king (see JAMES II.) the charter of Massachusetts was forfeited, and Andros ruled Maine with cruelty. The Revolution of 1688 restored the former political status of Massachusetts, and thenceforth the history of the province of Maine is identified with that of Massachusetts. It remained a part of that province until March 15, 1820, when it was admitted into the Union as the twenty-third State. In 1890 the population was 661,086; in 1900, 694,466.

LUMBERING IN MAINE.

During the Revolutionary War Maine was very little disturbed, but during that of 1812 it suffered much. The British held possession of a part of the country, but their rule was comparatively mild

after they gained a foothold. For more than half a century the governments of the United States and Great Britain were involved in a controversy concerning the eastern boundary, which the treaty of 1783 did not accurately define. The dispute was finally settled by treaty in 1842, each party making concessions. Maine was twice invaded by Confederates during the Civil War. On the night of June 29, 1863, the officers and crew of a Confederate privateer entered the harbor of Portland, captured the revenue-cutter *Caleb Cushing*, and fled to sea with her, sharply pursued by two steamers manned by armed volunteers. Finding they could not escape with the cutter, they blew her up, and, taking to their boats, were soon made prisoners. At mid-day on July 18, 1864, some Confederates came from St. John, N. B., and entered Calais to rob the bank there. Having been forewarned by the American consul at St. John, the authorities were prepared, arrested three of the party, and frightened the remainder away. During the Civil War Maine contributed its full share of men and supplies in support of the government. In 1872 a Swedish colony was planted on the Aroostook, at a place called New Sweden, where, in one year, about 600 Swedes, aided by the State, had settled upon 20,000 acres of land. They have their own municipal organization and schools, in which one of the chief studies is the English language. See UNITED STATES, MAINE, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS.

(Prior to 1820 Maine was a part of Massachusetts.)

Name.	Term.
William King	1820 to 1821
William D. Williamson	1821
Albion K. Parris	1822 to 1826
Enoch Lincoln	1827 " 1829
Nathan Cutler	1829
Jonathan G. Hutton	1830 to 1831
Samuel Emerson Smith	1831 " 1833
Robert P. Dunlap	1834 " 1837
Edward Kent	1838 " 1839
John Fairfield	1839 " 1840
Edward Kent	1840 " 1841
John Fairfield	1841 " 1843
Edward Kavanagh	1843 " 1844
Hugh J. Anderson	1844 " 1847
John W. Dana	1847 " 1850
John Hubbard	1850 " 1853
William G. Crosby	1853 " 1855
Anson P. Morrill	1855 " 1856
Samuel Wells	1856 " 1857
Hannibal Hamlin	1857
Joseph H. Williams	1857 to 1858

GOVERNORS—*Continued.*

Name.	Term.
Lot M. Morrill	1858 to 1861
Israel Washburn, Jr.	1861 " 1862
Abner Coburn	1862 " 1864
Samuel Corey	1864 " 1867
Joshua L. Chamberlain	1867 " 1870
Sidney Perham	1871 " 1873
Nelson Dingley, Jr.	1874 " 1875
Selden Connor	1876 " 1879
Alonzo Garcelon	1879 " 1880
Daniel F. Davis	1880 " 1881
Harris M. Plaisted	1881 " 1882
Frederick Robie	1883 " 1887
Joseph R. Bodwell	1887
Sebastian S. Marble	1887 to 1888
Edwin C. Burleigh	1889 " 1892
Henry B. Cleaves	1893 " 1897
Llewellyn Powers	1897 " 1901
John F. Hill	1901 " 1905
Wm. T. Cobb	1905 " 1907

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
John Chandler	16th to 20th	1820 to 1829
John Holmes	16th " 19th	1820 " 1827
Albion K. Parris	20th	1828
John Holmes	20th to 22d	1829 to 1833
Peleg Sprague	21st " 23d	1830 " 1835
John Ruggles	23d " 26th	1835 " 1841
Ether Shepley	23d " 24th	1835 " 1836
Judah Dana	24th	1836 " 1837
Reuel Williams	25th to 28th	1837 " 1843
George Evans	27th " 29th	1841 " 1847
John Fairfield	28th " 30th	1843 " 1847
Wyman B. S. Moor	30th	1848
Hannibal Hamlin	30th	1848 to 1857
James W. Bradbury	30th to 33d	1847 " 1853
William Pitt Fessenden	33d " 41st	1854 " 1869
Amos Nourse	34th	1857
Hannibal Hamlin	35th to 36th	1857 to 1861
Lot M. Morrill	36th " 44th	1861 " 1876
Hannibal Hamlin	41st " 46th	1869 " 1881
James G. Blaine	44th " 47th	1876 " 1881
William P. Frye	47th " ——	1881 " ——
Eugene Hale	47th " ——	1881 " ——

Maine, THE DESTRUCTION OF THE. See CUBA.

Maine Liquor Law. The first prohibition law in Maine was enacted in 1846, and subsequently amended in 1858, 1872, 1879, 1884.

Maize. See INDIAN CORN.

Malden, on the Detroit River, 18 miles below the city of Detroit and 8 miles from Lake Erie, was a place of great importance, in a military point of view, during the War of 1812–15. It is on the Canadian shore, and is now called Amherstburg. There the British fleet on Lake Erie—captured by Perry in 1813—was built, and it was a rallying-place for British troops and their Indian allies. The long dock seen in the engraving was the place where the British fleet was launched. From Malden they sailed on the morning of the battle of Lake Erie. In the winter of 1813 the British and Ind-

ians issued from Malden on the expedition that resulted in the massacre at the Raisin River. In March, while British ships were frozen at Malden, Harri-

VIEW OF MALDEN IN 1861, WHERE THE BRITISH SHIPS WERE BUILT.

son sent an expedition to capture them at that port. They set off in sleighs, instructed to leave the latter at Middle Bass Island, whence, with feet muffled by moccasins, they were to make their way silently over the frozen river. But when they arrived the ice had broken up, and the expedition returned.

Mallery, GARRICK, ethnologist; born in Wilkesbarre, Pa., April 23, 1831; graduated at Yale College in 1850; became a lawyer in Philadelphia in 1853. When the Civil War broke out he entered the National army; became lieutenant-colonel and brevet colonel. When the regular army was reorganized in 1870 he was commissioned captain in the 1st United States Infantry. In 1876 he was assigned to the command of Fort Rice in Dakota Territory, where he became interested in the mythology and history of the Dakota Indians; in 1879 he was retired from the army and made ethnologist of the United States bureau of ethnology. His publications include *A Calendar of the Dakota Nation; The Former and Present Number of our Indians; A Collection of Gestures, Signs, and Signals of the North American Indians; Pictographs of the North American Indians; Picture Writing of the American Indians,* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 24, 1894.

Mallet, JOHN WILLIAM, chemist; born in Dublin, Ireland, Oct. 10, 1832; educated at Trinity College, Dublin; came to the United States in 1853; was an officer on the staff of Gen. Robert E. Rodes, in the Confederate army; had general charge of the ordnance laboratories of the Confederate government; was Professor of Chemistry in the medical department of the University of Louisiana in 1865–68; and then was called to the similar chair in the University of Virginia. He has contributed numerous papers to scientific transactions and journals.

Mallory, STEPHEN RUSSELL, military officer; born in Trinidad, West Indies, in 1813; was the son of a sea-captain of Bridgeport, Conn., who died in Key West in 1821. He studied law, and was admitted to the bar in Key West in 1833. He was appointed inspector of customs there, and a judge, and in 1845 was made

collector of customs in the same place. From 1851 to 1861 he was United States Senator from Florida; and, on the organization of the Confederate government in February, 1861, he was appointed Secretary of the Navy. At the close of the war he was a state prisoner for some time, and after his release on parole practised law till his death, in Pensacola, Nov. 9, 1873.

STEPHEN RUSSELL MALLORY.

Maltby, ISAAC, author; born in Northfield, Conn., Nov. 10, 1767; graduated at Yale College in 1786; brigadier-general of Massachusetts militia in 1813–15. He was prominent in the politics of Massachusetts, serving several terms in its legislature. He was the author of *Elements of War; Courts-Martial and Military Law;* and *Military Tactics.* He died in Waterloo, N. Y., Sept. 9, 1819.

Malvern Hill, BATTLE AT. Malvern Hill forms a high and dry plateau sloping towards Richmond from bold banks on the James River, and bounded by deep ravines that made it an excellent defensive position. Upon that plateau the Army of the Potomac was posted, July 1, 1862, under the direction of General Barnard. Gen. Fitz-John Porter had reached that point the day before, and placed his troops so as to command all approaches to it from Richmond or the White Oak Swamp. They were within reach of National gunboats on the James River that might prove very efficient in any battle there. The last of the Confederate trains and artillery arrived there at 4 P.M., and in that almost impregnable position preparations were made for battle. Yet General McClellan did not consider his army safe there, for it was too far separated from his supplies; so, on the morning of July 1, he went on the *Galena* to seek for an eligible place for a base of supplies, and for an encampment for the army. During his absence the Confederates brought on a battle, which proved to be a most sanguinary one. Lee had concentrated his troops at Glendale, on the morning of July 1, but did not get ready for a full attack until late in the afternoon. He formed his line with the divisions of Generals Jackson, Ewell, Whiting, and D. H. Hill on the left (a large portion of Ewell's in reserve); Generals Magruder and Huger on the right; while the troops of A. P. Hill and Longstreet were held in reserve on the left. The latter took no part in the engagement that followed. The National line of battle was formed with Porter's corps on the left (with Sykes's division on the left and Morell's on the right), where the artillery of the reserve, under Colonel Hunt, was so disposed on high ground that a concentrated fire of sixty heavy guns could be brought to bear on any point on his front or left; and on the highest point on the hill Colonel Tyler had ten siege-guns in position. Couch's division was on Porter's right; next on the right were Hooker and Kearny; next Sedgwick and Richardson; next Smith and Slocum; and then the remainder of Keyes's corps, extending in a curve nearly to the river. The Pennsylvania Reserves were held as a support in the rear of Porter and Couch.

Lee resolved to carry Malvern Hill by storm, and concentrated his artillery so as to silence that of the Nationals; when, with a shout, two divisions were to charge and carry a battery before them. This shout was to be a signal for a general advance with bayonets. This programme was not carried out. When, late in the afternoon, a heavy artillery fire was opened on Couch and Kearny, A. P. Hill, believing that he heard the shout, advanced to the attack, but found himself unsupported. A single battery was at work, instead of 200 great guns, as had been promised. That battery was soon demol-

ished, and the Confederates driven back in confusion to the woods, when the Nationals advanced several hundred yards to a better position. Meanwhile Magruder and Huger had made a strong attack on Porter at the left. Two brigades (Kershaw's and Semmes's) of McLaws's division charged through a dense wood up to Porter's guns; and a similar dash was made by Wright, Mahone, and Anderson farther to the right, and by Barksdale nearer the centre; but all were repulsed, and for a while there was a lull in the storm of battle. Then Lee ordered another assault on the batteries. His columns rushed from the woods over the open fields to capture the batteries and carry the hill. They were met by a deadly fire of musketry and great guns; and as one brigade recoiled another was pushed forward, with a seeming recklessness of life under the circumstances. At about seven o'clock in the evening, while fresh troops under Jackson were pressing the Nationals sorely, Sickles's brigade, of Hooker's division, and Meagher's Irish brigade, of Richardson's division, were ordered up to their support. At the same time the gunboats on the James River, full 150 feet below, were hurling heavy shot and shell among the Confederates with terrible effect, their range being directed by officers of the signal corps on the hill. The conflict was furious and destructive, and did not cease until almost 9 P.M., when the Confederates were driven to the shelter of the woods, ravines, and swamps, their ranks shattered and broken.

The victory for the Nationals was decisive. The victorious generals were anxious to follow up the advantage and push right on to Richmond, 18 miles distant; but General McClellan, who came upon the battle-ground on the right when the final contest was raging furiously on the left, issued an order, immediately after the repulse of the Confederates, for the victorious army to fall back still farther to Harrison's Landing, on the James, a few miles below, and then returned to the *Galena*, on which he had spent a greater part of the day. The order produced consternation and dissatisfaction, but was obeyed. The battle at Malvern Hill was the last of the series of severe conflicts before Richmond in the course of seven days. In these conflicts the aggregate losses of the Nationals were reported by McClellan to be 15,249. Of that number 1,582 were killed, 7,709 wounded, and 5,958 missing.

GUNBOATS AT THE BATTLE OF MALVERN HILL.

Mammoth Cave, a remarkable cave in Edmondson county, Ky., discovered in 1809 by a Mr. Hutchins while in pursuit of a bear. Its extreme extent is less than 10 miles, and the combined length of all the accessible avenues is possibly 150 miles.

Manassas Junction. When, at the close of April, 1861, the Confederates were

satisfied that the national government and the loyal people of the country were resolved to maintain the authority and integrity of the republic, they put forward extraordinary efforts to strike a deadly blow by seizing the national capital before it should be too late. There was great enthusiasm among the young men of the South. They read on the telegraph bulletin-boards the call of the President for 75,000 men, and received the announcement with derisive laughter and cheers for "Old Abe the Rail-splitter." Few believed there would be war. One of their chroniclers avers that companies were quickly formed from among the wealthiest of the youth, and that 200,000 volunteers could have been organized within a month, if they had been called for. The enthusiasm of the young men was shared by the other sex. Banners of costly materials were made by clubs of young women and delivered to the companies with appropriate speeches—the young men on such occasions swearing that they would perish rather than desert the flag thus consecrated. Regarding the whole matter as a lively pastime, many of these companies dressed in the most costly attire, and bore the most expensive rifles, but grave men tried to undeceive them. Jefferson Davis wrote to a Mississippi friend, telling him that hardships and privations awaited these young men, and advising them to use the commonest materials for clothing. He recommended all volunteers to dress in gray-flannel coats and light-blue cotton pantaloons, for summer was approaching. The Confederates chose as their grand rallying-place, preparatory to a march on Washington, Manassas Junction, a point on the Orange and Alexandria Railway, where another joined it from Manassas Gap, in the Blue Ridge. It is about 25 miles west from Alexandria, and 30 miles in a direct line from Washington, D. C. It was an admirable strategic point, as it commanded the grand southern railway route connecting Washington and Richmond, and another leading to the fertile Shenandoah Valley, beyond the Blue Ridge. General Scott had been advised to take possession of that point, but he declined; and while the veteran soldier was preparing for a defensive campaign the opportunity was lost. Large numbers of Confederate troops were assembled under General Beauregard. The battlefield was the scene of extensive army manœuvres in 1904. See BULL RUN.

The battle of Manassas, or the second battle of Bull Run, was fought near the battle-ground of the first engagement at Bull Run, Aug. 30, 1862. Pope, after the battle of GROVETON (*q. v.*), found his army greatly reduced in numbers—only about 40,000. It had failed to keep Lee and Jackson apart, and it was now decidedly the weaker force. Prudence counselled a retreat to Bull Run, or even to the defences of Washington; but Pope resolved to try the issue of another battle. He ex-

MANASSAS JUNCTION AFTER THE EVACUATION BY THE CONFEDERATES.

pected rations and forage from McClellan, at Alexandria, but was disappointed. When it became clear that he would receive no aid from McClellan, he had no other alternative than to fight or surrender, so he put his line into V shape on the morning of Aug. 30. Lee made a movement which gave Pope the impression that the Confederates were retreating, and the latter telegraphed to Washington to that effect. He ordered a pursuit. When, at 10 A.M., an attempt was made to execute this order, a fearful state of things was developed. The eminence near Groveton was found to be swarming with Confederates, who, instead of retreating, had been massing under cover of the forest, in preparation for an offensive movement. They opened a furious fire on the front of the Nationals, and at the same time made a heavy flank movement. Porter's corps, which had been made to recoil by the first unexpected blow, rallied, and performed specially good service. Ricketts meanwhile had hastened to the left. By the disposition of Reynolds's corps to meet the flank movement, Porter's key-point had been uncovered, but the place of Reynolds had been quickly supplied by 1,000 men under Warren. The battle became very severe, and for a while victory seemed to incline towards the Nationals, for Jackson's advanced line was steadily pushed back until 5 P.M. Then Longstreet turned the tide. With four batteries, he poured a most destructive fire from Jackson's right, and line after line of Nationals was swept away. Very soon the whole of Pope's left was put to flight, when Jackson advanced, and Longstreet pushed his heavy columns against Pope's centre. At the same time Lee's artillery was doing fearful execution upon Pope's disordered infantry. Darkness alone put an end to the fearful struggle. Although pushed back some distance, the National left was still unbroken, and held the Warrenton turnpike, by which alone the Nationals might safely retreat. Pope had no other safe alternative than to fall back towards the defences of Washington. At 8 P.M. he issued orders to that effect, and during the night the whole army withdrew across Bull Run to the heights of Centreville, the troops under Meade and Seymour covering the movement. The night was very dark, and Lee, fortunately, did not pursue. See BULL RUN.

Mandamus Councillors. See MASSACHUSETTS.

Manderson, CHARLES FREDERICK, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 9, 1837; acquired a public-school education; removed to Canton in 1856; admitted to the bar in 1859; served in the Civil War, and then resumed practice in Stark county, O.; removed to Nebraska in 1869; was a United States Senator in 1883–95; and in the latter year became general solicitor of the Burlington system of railroads west of the Missouri River.

Mandrillon, JOSEPH, author; born in Bourg, France, in 1743; received a commercial education; came to the United States with the intention of founding branches of a bank which he proposed to open in Amsterdam on his return to Europe. When the French Revolution began he was tried and guillotined as a constitutional royalist in Paris, Jan. 7, 1794. His publications include *The Travelling American, or Observations on the Actual State, Culture, and Commerce of the British Colonies in America;* and *The American Spectator, or General Remarks on North America.*

Mangum, WILLIE PERSON, statesman; born in Orange county, N. C., in 1792; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1815; admitted to the bar in 1817; elected to the State legislature in 1818; judge of the Superior Court of the State in 1819; and to Congress in 1823 and 1825, when he resigned on account of his second election as judge of the Superior Court. He represented North Carolina in the United States Senate in 1831–36, when he resigned; was re-elected in 1841, and again in 1848. He died at Red Mountain, N. C., Sept. 14, 1861.

Manhattan Island, the site of the city of New York, now comprising the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx of the Greater New York, was so named by the Dutch after a tribe of Indians which they first found there, who were called Mannahatans. When Peter Minuit reached New Netherland as governor (1626), he purchased the island of the natives for the Dutch West India Company for the value of sixty guilders (about $24), and paid for it in trinkets, hatchets, knives, etc. In

LANDING OF THE DUTCH SETTLERS ON MANHATTAN ISLAND.
(From an old engraving.)

the winter of 1613–14, Captain Block built a ship there—the beginning of the merchant marine of New York—and there the first permanent settlers within the domain of New York State first landed. The purchase of Manhattan Island by the Dutch from the Indians was an event in history as important and as creditable to the honesty of the purchasers as was the treaty of William Penn.

"Manifest Destiny." In a lecture delivered at the Royal Institute of Great Britain in May, 1880, on the subject of "The Manifest Destiny of the Anglo-Saxon Race," Prof. John Fiske recalled the story of the three Americans, each of whom proposed a toast.

"Here's to the United States," said the first speaker—"bounded on the north by British America; on the south by the Gulf of Mexico; on the east by the Atlantic, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean."

The second speaker said: "Here's to the United States—bounded on the north by the North Pole, on the south by the South Pole, on the east by the rising, and on the west by the setting sun." Emphatic applause greeted the aspiring prophecy. But here arose the third speaker—a very serious gentleman from the Far West. "If we are going," said this truly patriotic American, "to leave the historic past and present, and take our manifest destiny into the account, why restrict ourselves within the narrow limits assigned by our fellow-countryman who has just sat down? I give you the United States—bounded on the north by the aurora borealis, on the south by the precession of the equinoxes, on the east by the primeval chaos, and on the west by the day of judgment."

Professor Fiske offered some considerations concerning the future of the United States, which he said might seem unreasonably large to his audience, but which were quite modest, after all, when compared with some other prophecies.

A few short extracts from his lecture are as follows:

Chronic warfare, both private and public, periodic famines, and sweeping pestilences like the Black Death—these were the things which formerly shortened hu-

man life and kept down population. In the absence of such causes, and with the abundant capacity of our country for feeding its people, I think it an extremely moderate statement if we say that by the year 2000 the English race in the United States will number at least six or seven hundred millions.

The object for which the American government fought in the Civil War was the perpetual maintenance of that peculiar state of things which the federal Union had created—a state of things in which, throughout the whole vast territory over which the Union holds sway, questions between States, like questions between individuals, must be settled by legal argument and judicial decisions, and not by wager of battle. Far better to demonstrate this point once for all, at whatever cost, than to be burdened hereafter, like the states of Europe, with frontier fortresses and standing armies, and all the barbaric apparatus of mutual suspicion.

It was thought that eleven States which had struggled so hard to escape from the federal tie could not be readmitted to voluntary co-operation in the general government, but must henceforth be held as conquered territory — a most dangerous experiment for any free people to try. Yet within a dozen years we find the old federal relations resumed in all their completeness, and the disunion party powerless and discredited in the very States where once it had wrought such mischief.

It is enough to point to the general conclusion, that the work which the English race began when it colonized North America is destined to go on until every land on the earth's surface that is not already the seat of an old civilization shall become English in its language, in its political habits and traditions, and to a predominant extent in the blood of its people.

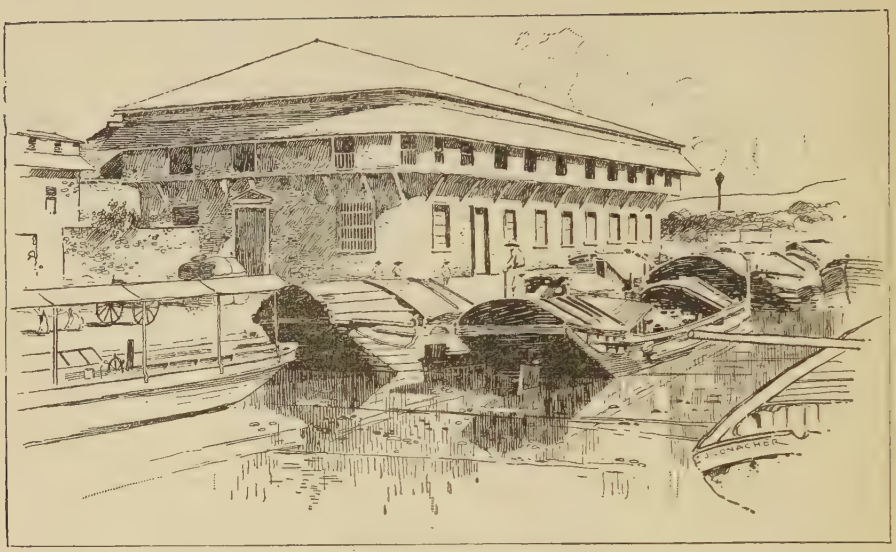
We have not yet done away with robbery and murder, but we have at least made private warfare illegal; we have arrayed public opinion against it to such an extent that the police court usually makes short shrift for the misguided man who tries to wreak vengeance on his enemy. Is it too much to hope that by-and-by we may similarly put public warfare under the ban? I think not. Already in America, as we have seen, it has become customary to deal with questions between States just as we would deal with questions between individuals. This we have seen to be the real purport of American federalism. To have established such a system over one great continent is to have made a very good beginning towards establishing it over the world. To establish such a system in Europe will no doubt be difficult, for there we have to deal with an immense complication of prejudices, intensified by linguistic and ethnological differences. Nevertheless, the pacific pressure exerted upon Europe by America is becoming so great that it will doubtless before long overcome all these obstacles. I refer to the industrial competition between the old and the new worlds, which has become so conspicuous within the last ten years. Agriculturally, Minnesota, Nebraska, and Kansas are already formidable competitors with England, France, and Germany; but this is but the beginning. It is but the first spray from the tremendous wave of economic competition that is gathering in the Mississippi Valley. By-and-by, when our shameful tariff—falsely called "protective"—shall have been done away with, and our manufacturers shall produce superior articles at less cost of raw material, we shall begin to compete with European countries in all the markets of the world; and the competition in manufactures will become as keen as it is now beginning to be in agriculture.

In some such way as this, I believe, the industrial development of the English race outside of Europe will by-and-by enforce federalism upon Europe.

It may after many more ages of political experience become apparent that there is really no reason, in the nature of things, why the whole of mankind should not constitute politically one huge federation.

I believe that the time will come when such a state of things will exist upon the earth.

Then it will be possible to speak of the United States as stretching from pole to pole; or, with Tennyson, to celebrate the "parliament of man and the federation of the world."



MANILA—BUSINESS OFFICES.

Manila, city, port of entry, and capital of Luzon and of the Philippine Islands; on the west coast of Luzon and on the west shore of Manila Bay; at the mouth of the Pasig River. The city proper is a walled one, containing a citadel and the public buildings. The remainder of the city consists of a large, straggling business town and a wide fringe of suburban settlements. The walled city is in the angle of land at the south of the river's mouth. Along the sea-front, facing westward, is a narrow strip of low land which has been reclaimed by means of a breakwater. Across the river, north of the walled city, is the large and flourishing business town. The central part is called Binondo, which name is often applied to the whole, though the city has grown so large as to include nearly a dozen other wards. Driving in any direction, it is about 3 miles before one gets away from built-up streets and reaches the open country. Even then the rural settlements are found full of the residences of city business people, and so it is difficult to say exactly what should be considered part of the city and what should not.

The city is irregularly laid out, the streets very narrow, and the houses crowded together. The principal business street is crooked and filled with commonplace, mean-looking structures. The Pasig is bridged in several places, connecting the old city with Binondo, and there are tramways running into the outlying parts of the town, and a steam tramway to the northern suburb of Malabon. There is also a railway from Manila to Dagupan, about 120 miles north. A little way back from the sea is the Jesuit Observatory, a splendidly equipped institution. Here, far removed from petty troubles, the monks pursue their meteorological observations, carefully compiling data and employing delicate instruments the like of which is not to be seen east of Calcutta. Outside of the populous suburbs there are more rural and less settled districts, dotted with handsome residences, scattered remotely among the rice-fields and tropical woodlands.

The climate of Manila is hot and wet, but salubrious. The city is often swept by typhoons from the China Sea, and is also subject to frequent earthquakes, which are often very destructive. Manila is celebrated for the hemp and cigars which form its principal exports.

The city was founded by Miguel Lopez de Legaspi in 1571, and was surrounded by a wall in 1590. It was invaded by the British in 1762. Commerce with Spain,

by way of Cape Horn, was started in 1764. Previously, all trade had been carried on by way of Acapulco, Mexico. In 1789 the port was opened to foreign vessels, but commerce did not thrive until the expiration of the privileges of the Royal Company of the Philippines, in 1834. Manila was connected by cable with Hong-Kong in 1880. On May 1, 1898, the United States Asiatic squadron, under Commodore Dewey, defeated the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay, and on Aug. 15 the American land forces, assisted by the navy and the native revolutionists, gained possession of the city. It has since been the seat of the American military authorities. See LUZON.

Capture of the City.—The following is an extended synopsis of the official report of MAJ.-GEN. WESLEY MERRITT (*q. v.*) on the operations around Manila and the capture of the city, under date of Aug. 31, 1898:

I found General Greene's command encamped on a strip of sandy land running parallel to the shore of the bay and not far distant from the beach, but, owing to the great difficulty of landing supplies, the greater portion of the force had shelter-tents only, and were suffering many discomforts, the camp being situated in a low, flat place, without shelter from the heat of the tropical sun or adequate protection during the terrific downpours of rain so frequent at this season. I was at once struck by the exemplary spirit of patient, even cheerful, endurance shown by the officers and men under such circumstances, and this feeling of admiration for the manner in which the American soldiers, volunteer and regular, accept the necessary hardships of the work they have undertaken to do has grown and increased with every phase of the difficult and trying campaign which the troops of the Philippine expedition have brought to such a brilliant and successful conclusion.

The Filipinos, or insurgent forces at war with Spain, had, prior to the arrival of the American land forces, been waging a desultory warfare with the Spaniards

A TYPICAL VILLAGE NEAR MANILA.

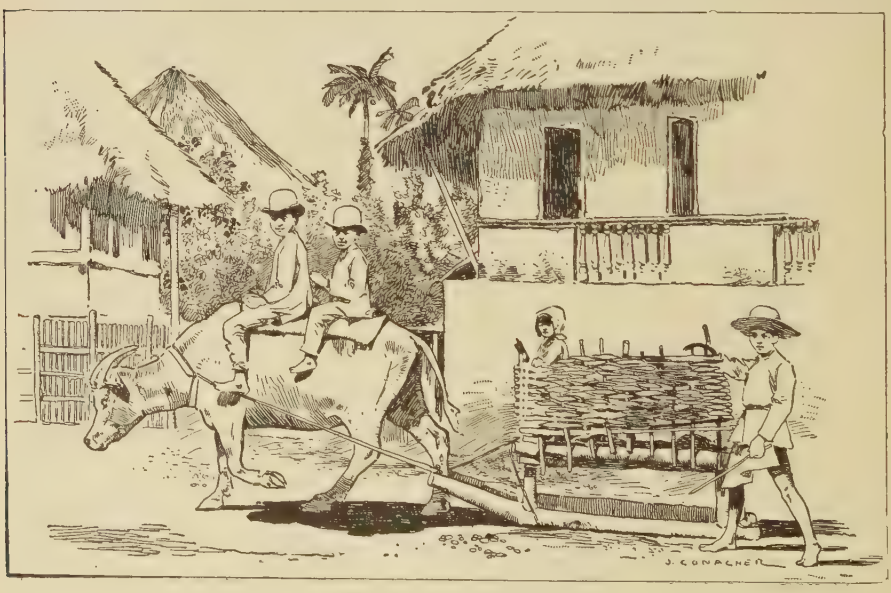
for several months, and were, at the time of my arrival, in considerable force, variously estimated and never accurately ascertained, but probably not far from 12,000 men. These troops, well supplied with small-arms, with plenty of ammunition and several field-guns, had obtained positions of investment opposite to the Spanish lines of detached works throughout their entire extent.

[General Merritt then speaks of Aguinaldo's accomplishments previous to his arrival, and continues:]

As General Aguinaldo did not visit me on my arrival nor offer his services as a subordinate military leader, and as my instructions from the President fully contemplated the occupation of the islands by the American land forces, and stated that "the powers of the military occupant are absolute and supreme and immediately operate upon the political condition of the inhabitants," I did not consider it wise to hold any direct communication with the insurgent leader until I should be in possession of the city of Manila, especially as I would not until then be in a position to issue a proclamation and enforce my authority, in the event that his pretensions should clash with my designs.

For these reasons the preparations for the attack on the city were pressed and military operations conducted without reference to the situation of the insurgent forces. The wisdom of this course was subsequently fully established by the fact that when the troops of my command carried the Spanish intrenchments, extending from the sea to the Pasay road on the extreme Spanish right, we were under no obligations, by prearranged plans of mutual attack, to turn to the right and clear the front still held against the insurgents, but were able to move forward at once and occupy the city and suburbs.

To return to the situation of General Greene's brigade as I found it on my arrival, it will be seen that the difficulty in gaining an avenue of approach to the Spanish line lay in the fact of my disinclination to ask General Aguinaldo to withdraw from the beach and the "Calle Real," so that Greene could move forward. This was overcome by instructions to General Greene to arrange, if possible, with the insurgent brigade commander in his immediate vicinity to move to the right and allow the American forces unobstructed control of the roads in their immediate front. No objection was made, and ac-



STREET TRAFFIC IN MANILA.

TYPES OF NATIVES.

cordingly General Greene's brigade threw forward a heavy outpost line on the "Calle Real" and the beach and constructed a trench, in which a portion of the guns of the Utah batteries were placed.

The Spanish, observing this activity on our part, made a very sharp attack with infantry and artillery on the night of July 31. The behavior of our troops during this night attack was all that could be desired, and I have in cablegrams to the War Department taken occasion to commend by name those who deserve special mention for good conduct in the affair. Our position was extended and strengthened after this and resisted successfully repeated night attacks, our forces suffering, however, considerable loss in wounded and killed, while the losses of the enemy, owing to the darkness, could not be ascertained.

The strain of the night fighting and the heavy details for outpost duty made it imperative to reinforce General Greene's troops with General MacArthur's brigade, which had arrived in transports on July 31. The difficulties of this operation can hardly be overestimated. The transports were at anchor off Cavité, 5 miles from a point on the beach where it was desired to disembark the men. Several squalls, accompanied by floods of rain, raged day after day, and the only way to get the troops and supplies ashore was to load them from the ship's side into native lighters (called "cascos") or small steamboats, move them to a point opposite the camp, and then disembark them through the surf in small boats or by running the lighters head on on the beach. The landing was finally accomplished, after days of hard work and hardship, and I desire here to express again my admiration for the fortitude and cheerful willingness of the men of all commands engaged in this operation.

Upon the assembly of MacArthur's brigade in support of Greene's I had about 8,500 men in position to attack, and I deemed the time had come for final action. During the time of the night attacks I had communicated my desire to Admiral Dewey that he would allow his ships to open fire on the right of the Spanish line of intrenchments, believing that such action would stop the night firing and loss of life, but the admiral had declined to order it unless we were in danger of losing our position by the assaults of the Spanish, for the reason that, in his opinion, it would precipitate a general engagement, for which he was not ready. Now, however, the brigade of General MacArthur was in position and the *Mon-*

ESCOLTA STREET, MANILA.

terey had arrived, and under date of Aug. 6 Admiral Dewey agreed to my suggestion that we should send a joint letter to the captain-general notifying him that he should remove from the city all non-combatants within forty-eight hours, and that operations against the defences of Manila might begin at any time after the expiration of that period.

This letter was sent Aug. 7, and a reply was received the same date to the effect that the Spaniards were without places of refuge for the increased numbers of wounded, sick, women, and children now lodged within the walls. On the 9th a formal joint demand for the surrender of the city was sent in. This demand was based upon the hopelessness of the struggle on the part of the Spaniards, and that every consideration of humanity demanded that the city should not be subjected to bombardment under such circumstances. The captain-general's reply, of same date, stated that the council of defence had declared that the demand could not be granted, but the captain-general offered to consult his government if we would allow him the time strictly necessary for the communications by way of Hong-Kong.

This was declined on our part, for the reason that it could, in the opinion of the admiral and myself, lead only to a continuance of the situation, with no immediate result favorable to us, and the necessity was apparent and very urgent that decisive action should be taken at once to compel the enemy to give up the town, in order to relieve our troops from the trenches and from the great exposure to unhealthy conditions which were unavoidable in a bivouac during the rainy season.

The sea-coast batteries in defence of Manila are so situated that it is impossible for ships to engage them without firing into the town, and as the bombardment of a city filled with women and children, sick and wounded, and containing a large amount of neutral property, could only be justified as a last resort, it was agreed between Admiral Dewey and myself that an attempt should be made to carry the extreme right of the Spanish line of intrenchments in front of the positions at that time occupied by our troops, which, with its flank on the seashore, was entirely open to the fire of the navy.

It was not my intention to press the assault at this point, in case the enemy should hold it in strong force, until after the navy had made practicable breaches in the works and shaken the troops holding them, which could not be done by the army alone, owing to the absence of siege guns. This is indicated fully in the orders and memorandum of attack hereto

appended. It was believed, however, as most desirable and in accordance with the principles of civilized warfare, that the attempt should be made to drive the enemy out of his intrenchments before resorting to the bombardment of the city.

By orders issued some time previously MacArthur's and Greene's brigades were organized as the 2d Division of the 8th Army Corps, Brig.-Gen. Thos. M. Anderson commanding; and in anticipation of the attack General Anderson moved his headquarters from Cavité to the brigade camps and assumed direct command in the field. Copies of the written and verbal instructions referred to above and appended hereto were given to the division and brigade commanders on the 12th, and all the troops were in position on the 13th at an early hour in the morning.

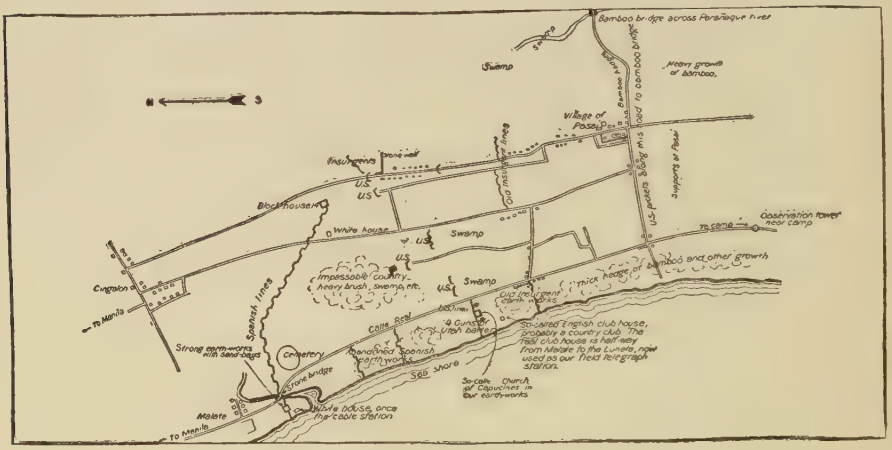
About 9 A.M. on that day our fleet steamed forward from Cavité, and before 10 A.M. opened a hot and accurate fire of heavy shells and rapid-fire projectiles on the sea flank of the Spanish intrenchments at the powder-magazine fort, and at the same time the Utah batteries, in position in our trenches near the Calle Real, began firing with great accuracy. At 10.25, on a prearranged signal from our trenches that it was believed our troops could advance, the navy ceased firing, and immediately a light line of skirmishers from the Colorado regiment of Greene's brigade passed over our trenches and deployed rapidly forward, another line from the same regiment from the left flank of our earthworks advancing swiftly up the beach in open order. Both these lines found the powder-magazine fort and the trenches flanking it deserted, but as they passed over the Spanish works they were met by a sharp fire from a second line situated in the streets of Malate, by which a number of men were killed and wounded, among others

A STREET IN THE SUBURBS OF MANILA.

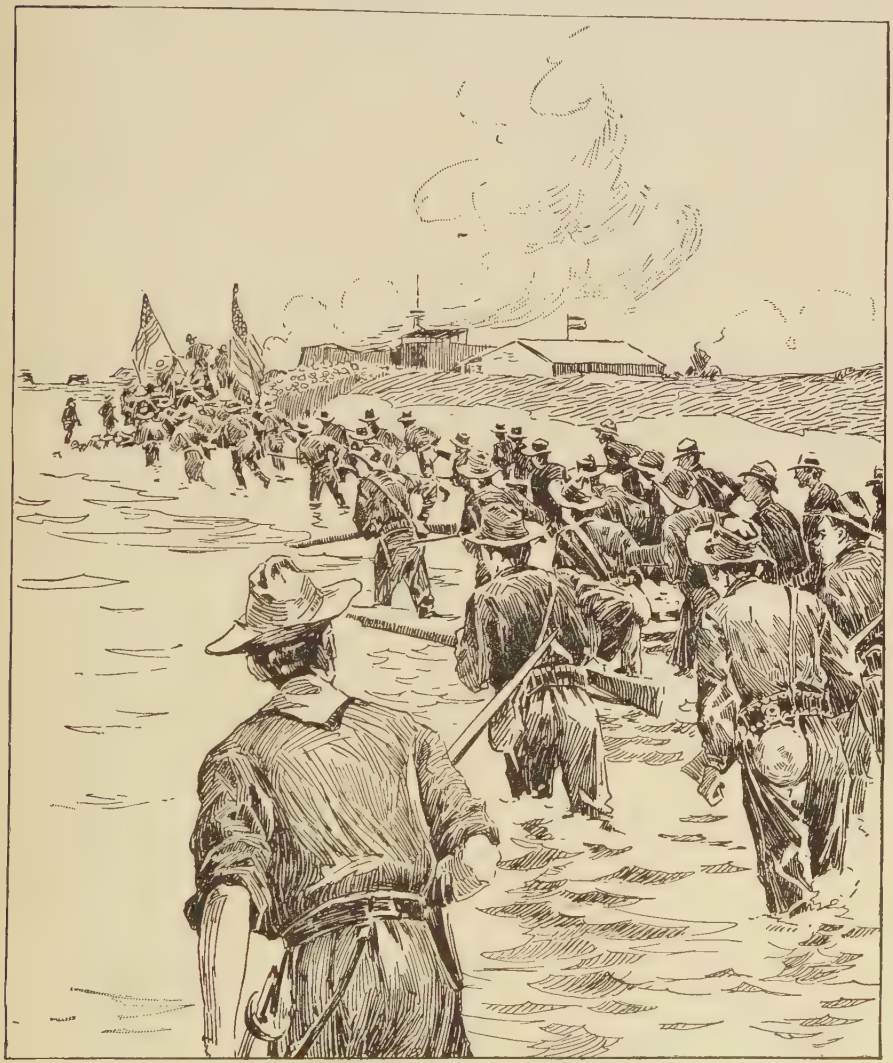
the soldiers who pulled down the Spanish colors still flying on the fort and raised our own.

The works of the second line soon gave way to the determined advance of Greene's troops, and that officer pushed his brigade rapidly through Malate and over the bridges to occupy Binondo and San

captain-general. I soon personally followed these officers into the town, going at once to the palace of the governor-general, and there, after a conversation with the Spanish authorities, a preliminary agreement of the terms of the capitulation was signed by the captain-general and myself. This agreement was sub-


Bamboo bridge across Parañaque river
Swamp
Heavy growth of bamboo
Village of Pasay
Road to bamboo bridge
Road to Paco
Block houses
White house
Swamp
Cocoanut trees
Observation tower near camp
To camp
Impassable country, heavy brush, swamp etc.
Bamboo and other growth
Cuartel
To Manila
Spanish lines
Strong earthworks with sand bags
Cemetery
Ruined Spanish earthworks
Stone bridge
Sea shore
Malate
White house, once the cable station
To Manila
Coast line
Old fort
Earthworks
Old Spanish earthworks
Old fort
Earthworks
Coast line
Old fort
Earthworks
Coast line
Old fort
Earthworks
Coast line

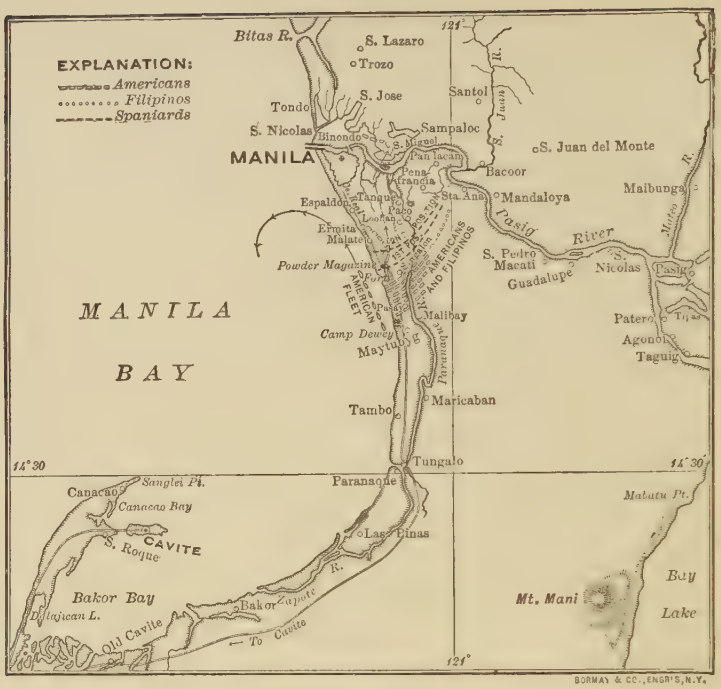
ly deploy and guard all principal points in the extensive suburbs, to keep out the insurgent forces pressing for admission, to quietly disarm an army of Spaniards with natives hostile to the European interests and stirred up by the knowledge that their own people were fighting in the outside trenches, was an act which only



THE CAPTURE OF MANILA—ATTACK ON FORT SAN ANTONIO.

more than equal in number to the American troops, and finally by all this to prevent entirely all rapine, pillage, and disorder, and gain entire and complete possession of a city of 300,000 people filled the law-abiding, temperate, resolute American soldier, well and skilfully handled by his regimental and brigade commander, could accomplish.

It will be observed that the trophies of



MAP OF THE BATTLE OF MANILA.

Manila were nearly $900,000, 13,000 prisoners, and 22,000 arms.

[General Merritt then details the inauguration of the military movement of Manila by the Americans. Further he says:]

On the 16th a cablegram containing the text of the President's proclamation directing a cessation of hostilities was received by me, and at the same time an order to make the fact known to the Spanish authorities, which was done at once. This resulted in a formal protest from the governor-general in regard to the transfer of public funds then taking place, on the ground that the proclamation was dated prior to the surrender. To this I replied that that *status quo* in which we were left with the cessation of hostilities was that existing at the time of the receipt by me of the official notice, and that I must insist upon the delivery of the funds. The delivery was made under protest.

After the issue of my proclamation and the establishment of my office as military governor, I had direct written communication with General Aguinaldo on several occasions. He recognized my authority as military governor of the town of Manila and suburbs, and made professions of his willingness to withdraw his troops to a line which I might indicate, but at the same time asking certain favors for himself. The matters in this connection had not been settled at the date of my departure. Doubtless much dissatisfaction is felt by the rank and file of the insurgents that they have not been permitted to enjoy the occupancy of Manila, and there is some ground for trouble with them owing to that fact, but notwithstanding many rumors to the contrary, I am of the opinion that the leaders will be able to prevent serious disturbances, as they are sufficiently intelligent and educated to know that to antagonize the United States would be to destroy their only chance of future political improvement.

I may add that great changes for the

better have taken place in Manila since the occupancy of the city by the American troops. The streets have been cleaned under the general management of General MacArthur, and the police, under Colonel Reeve, 13th Minnesota, were most proficient in preserving order. A stranger to the city might easily imagine that the American forces had been in control for months rather than days.

MANILA BAY, BATTLE OF

Manila Bay, BATTLE OF. The following is an account of the memorable naval battle of May 1, 1898, by Ramon Reyes Lala, Filipino author and lecturer, here reproduced by courtesy of his publishers, the Continental Publishing Company:

It was the 19th of April. An American fleet lay in the harbor of Hong-Kong, where it had been anchored for nearly a month, impatiently awaiting the command that should send it to battle.

There was feverish expectation of war, and bustle of preparation, and Commodore Dewey nervously walked the deck; for every moment the longed-for order was expected.

It was the 19th of April, and the white squadron lay gleaming in the sunlight; and yet by the night of the 20th the white squadron was no more; for she had exchanged the snowy garb of peace for the sombre gray of war. The ships' painters had, in this short time, given the entire fleet a significant coat of drab.

The English steamer *Nanshan,* with over 3,000 tons of Cardiff coal, and the steamer *Zafiro,* of the Manila-Hong-Kong line, carrying 7,000 tons of coal and provisions, had just been bought by the commodore, in anticipation of a declaration of neutrality, which would preclude such purchases, and thus two more vessels were added to the fleet, Lieutenant Hutchins being made commander of the *Nanshan,* and Ensign Pierson of the *Zafiro.* The *Zafiro* was then made a magazine for the spare ammunition of the fleet.

Hong-Kong, for strategic reasons, had been chosen as a place of rendezvous for the Asiatic squadron.

On April 25 war was declared between the United States and Spain, and, at the request of the acting governor of Hong-Kong, the American fleet steamed away to Mirs Bay, about 30 miles from Hong-Kong. On April 26 the revenue-cutter *McCulloch,* which had been left at Hong-Kong, brought the desired message. It read as follows:

"WASHINGTON, *April* 26.

"DEWEY, Asiatic Squadron,—Commence operations at once, particularly against the Spanish fleet. You must capture or destroy them.

"MCKINLEY."

"Thank God!" said the commodore. "At last we've got what we want. We'll blow them off the Pacific Ocean."

And now the fleet was headed direct for Manila, a distance of 628 miles; and, with hearts beating high with hope, the sailors cheered lustily for Old Glory and the navy blue.

In the squadron were the following vessels: *Olympia,* flag-ship, Capt. C. V. Gridley commanding; *Boston,* Capt. Frank Wildes; *Concord,* Commander Asa Walker; and the *Petrel,* Commander E. P. Wood. The *Raleigh,* Capt. J. B. Coughlan commanding, and the *Baltimore,* commanded by Capt. N. M. Dyer, also joined the squadron.

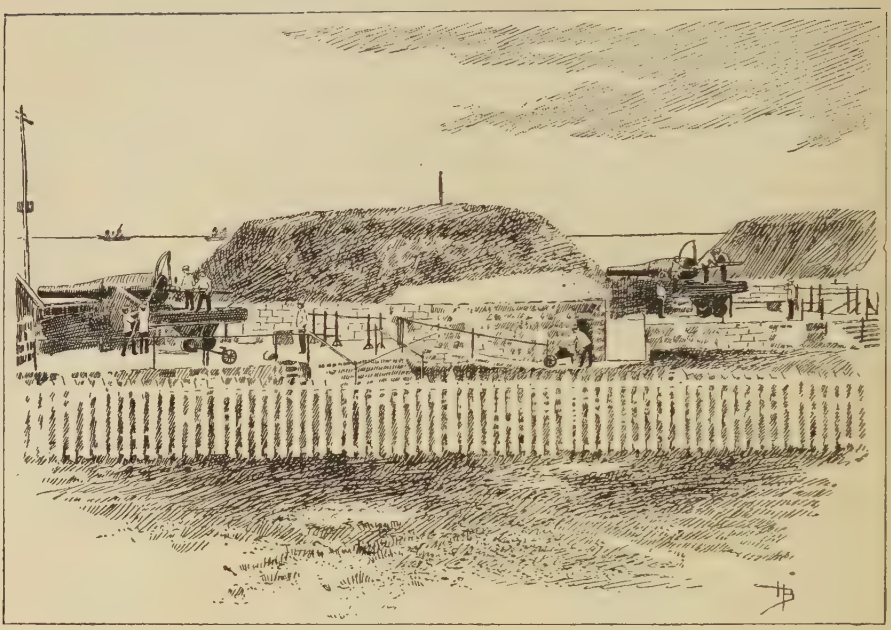
All these vessels were cruisers. The single armored ship in the squadron was the *Olympia,* and the armor, 4 inches thick, was around the turret guns.

In making the journey to the Philippines, a speed of only 8 knots was maintained, for the transport ships could not make fast headway against the rolling sea.

During this run, gun-drills and other exercises kept the men busy, and every minute was employed in earnest preparation for what all knew was to come.

It was on Saturday morning, April 30, that Luzon was sighted, and final preparations for the battle were immediately made. Impedimenta of all kinds were thrown overboard—chairs, tables, chests and boxes, and the ships were stripped and made ready for action. It was intensely warm, and the most ordinary evolution proved exhausting.

The *Boston,* the *Concord,* and the *Bal-*



FORT AND EARTHWORKS AT CAVITÉ, CAPTURED BY DEWEY.

timore were now sent ahead to discover whether the Spanish fleet was anywhere around.

After looking in at Bolinao Bay, these three vessels cautiously approached Subig Bay, about 30 miles from Manila. However, only a few small trading-vessels were here discovered, though it had been reported that the enemy intended to give the Americans battle there.

When the scouting ships reported that the enemy was nowhere in sight, the commodore replied: "All right, we shall meet them in Manila Bay." A war-council was then held on the *Olympia*, and the American commander told his officers that he intended to enter Manila Bay that very night.

The squadron then slowly proceeded in the direction of Manila. It was a sultry evening, and the yellow moon paved the waves with a pathway of gold, that seemed like a glorious avenue to victory.

Fearing that they might come upon the enemy at any moment, the men were posted at their guns, and, with the greatest quietness, the fleet steamed stealthily forward. The lights on all the ships were put out, save the one at the stern, and so the squadron slipped into the bay, each moment dreading a challenge from the strongly fortified batteries that the Americans had been taught to believe were located at every point along the entrance.

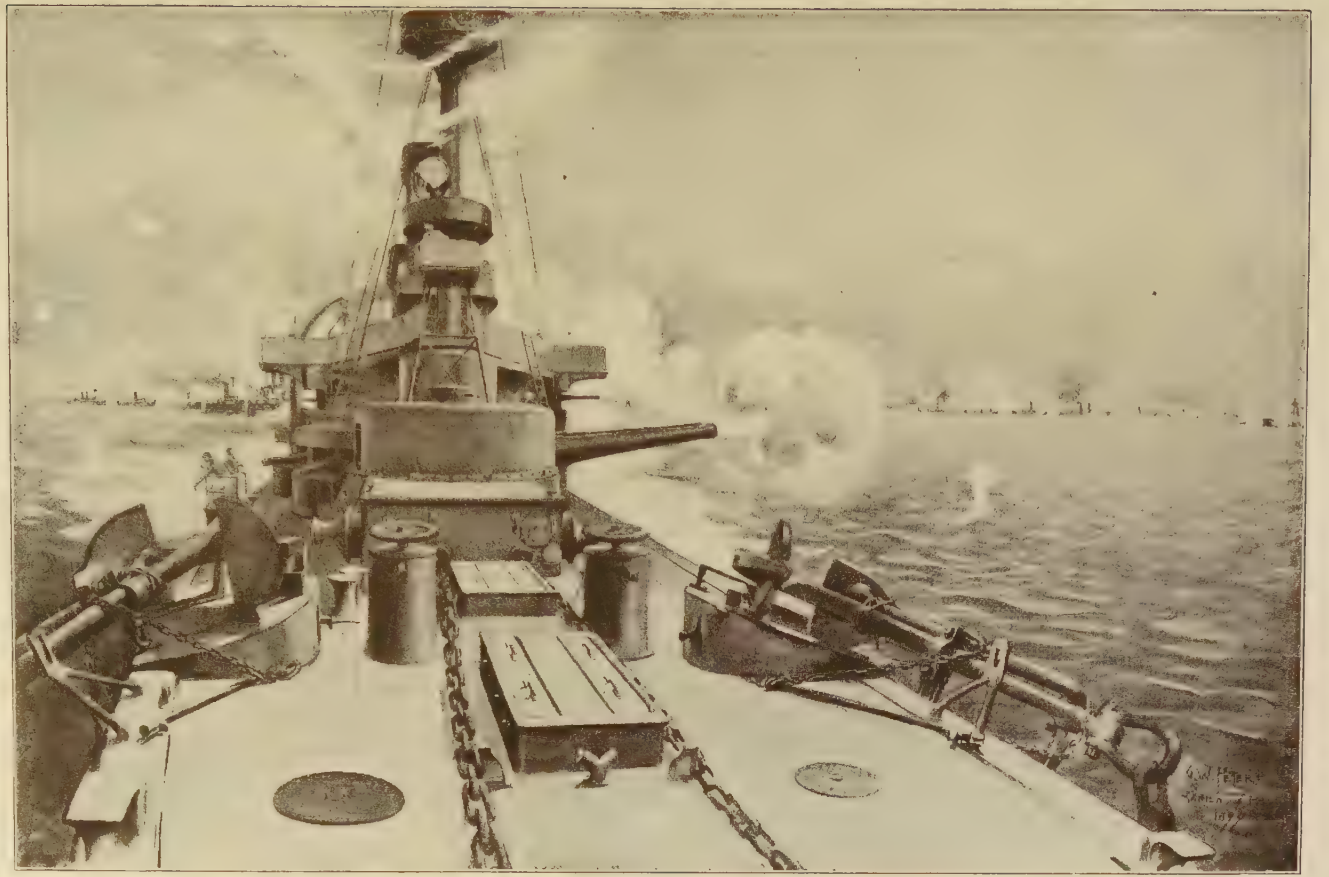
The speed was now increased to 8 knots; for the commodore wished to be as far inside as possible before his presence was discovered.

Through the dangerous channels, mined with death-hurling torpedoes, swept the silent squadron, grim and spectre-like. Well did the Americans know the dangers of this undertaking; and few there were that did not momentarily expect some exploding mine to hurl them into eternity.

Then Corregidor Island, with its lofty light-house, came within view, and the ships swept into the chief channel, known as the Boca Grande.

The commodore, having so far failed to discover the presence of the enemy, naturally concluded that the Spanish fleet was lying at Cavité, where it would have the advantage of the protection of the forts and the shore batteries.

And thus, with a full appreciation of



THE BATTLE OF MANILA BAY

the thousand and one dangers, known and unknown, that beset his path, Dewey kept straight by Corregidor.

It was eleven o'clock, and the men of the fleet, which was now almost past the island, were congratulating themselves that they were undiscovered when a solitary rocket soared over the lofty lighthouse; there was an answering light from the shore, and every moment the Americans expected the boom of the Spanish guns, long primed with a deadly welcome for the "Yankee pigs."

The narrowest part of the inlet had been passed; and still no sign that the entering fleet had been discovered. Impressive, indeed, was that long line of gloomy hulls, steering for battle, and courting destruction. The *Olympia*, the *Baltimore*, the *Raleigh*, the *Petrel*, the *Concord*, and the *Boston*, with the two transports the *Nanshan* and the *Zafiro*, convoyed by the *McCulloch*, on the flagship's port quarter—all kept on in the same straight course, while the men on board were partaking of light refreshment. For all felt that a great day's work was before them.

But where are the enemy? was the thought uppermost in every mind. For to the Americans themselves it seemed that they were surely making enough noise to be heard by the sentries on the shore. Doubtless they were asleep, dreaming a Spanish dream of mañana.

It was shortly past eleven o'clock, when from the smoke-stack of the convoy *McCulloch* flew a shower of sparks. A fireman had thrown open the furnace-doors and shovelled in a few pounds of soft coal.

This was evidently seen by some one on shore, for it was just fourteen minutes past eleven when a bugle sounded an alarm, and from the west came a blinding glare, a shrill whistle overhead, and the heavy boom of a cannon.

It was the first shot of the war, and it was fired with characteristic Spanish inaccuracy.

Again the battery thundered; and then a third time, before there was a reply from the American fleet. The *Raleigh*, which was the third vessel in the line, was the first to speak for the American side, and then the *Boston* followed, with stentorian roar, and the battle was on. Again the battery sent its deadly missive over the fleet, and this time the *Concord*, taking its aim by the flash, responded by throwing a 6-inch shell into the Spanish fort. A crash and a cry and all was still. It was learned afterwards that considerable damage was done by this wonderfully accurate shot, several of the Spanish gunners being killed.

The *Boston* and the *McCulloch* fired another round or two, but the forts had evidently had enough of it; they were no longer heard from.

Meanwhile, the squadron continued its course, though its speed was reduced to about 3 knots an hour, the commodore not wishing to arrive at Manila before dawn.

Darkness hung over the harbor as the gray procession glided noiselessly in. Had a Spanish scout been on the lookout, it would scarcely have been possible for him to have distinguished his approaching enemy. A strict lookout was kept for the Spanish ships and for the dreaded torpedo-boats, while most of the men lay down by their guns to get a little sleep. But with the terrible fate of the *Maine* vivid in their memories, the more imaginative ones conjured up a shuddering sense of insecurity in a harbor supposed to be literally planted with destructive mines.

This invisible foe, and not the longed-for and expected combat with the enemy's fleet, was feared by the brave Americans, and when the morning sun, in all his tropical splendor, rose right before the Americans, under the guns of the Cavité lay the Spanish fleet. The Americans were at last face to face with the enemy.

The commander-in-chief of the Spanish squadron was Rear-Admiral Patricio Montojo y Pasaron; the second in command was the Commandante-General Enrique Sostoa y Ordennez.

Under Admiral Montojo's command were the following vessels:

Reina Cristina, flag-ship, armored cruiser, Capt. L. Cadarso commanding, 3,500 tons; battery, six 6.2-inch, two 2.7-inch, six 6-pounders, and six 3-pounder rapid-fire guns; speed, 17.5 knots; crew, 400 officers and men.

Castilla, Capt. A. M. de Oliva commanding, 3,334 tons; battery, four 5.9-inch,

two 4.7-inch, two 3.3-inch, four 2.9-inch, and eight 6-pounder rapid-fire guns; speed, 14 knots; crew, 300.

Isla de Cuba, Capt. J. Sidrach, and *Isla de Luzon*, Capt. J. de la Herian; 1,030 tons each; battery, four 4.7-inch, four 6-pounder, and two 3-pounder rapid-fire guns; speed, 14 knots; crew, 200 men each.

General Lezo, Commander R. Benevento, and *Marques del Duero*, Commander S. Morena Guerra; the former was 524, the latter 500 tons; batteries, two 4.7-inch, one 3.5-inch, and two 3-pounder rapid-fire guns; speed, 11 knots; crew, 100.

Altogether, the Americans had four cruisers, two gunboats, one cutter; fifty-seven classified big guns, seventy-four rapid-firing guns and machine-guns, and 1,808 men. On the other side were seven cruisers, five gunboats, two torpedo-boats; fifty-two classified big guns, eighty-three rapid-firing and machine guns, and 1,948 men. It will thus be seen that the Americans had a few more heavy guns; but the Spanish had several more ships and over 100 more men. They were also assisted by the powerful land-batteries, and by the knowledge of the exact distance of the American ships. For the latter had no range-marks with which to determine the proper elevation to be given to their sights. In the American squadron, moreover, was not a single armored cruiser; besides, the Spaniards were at their base of supplies, while Commodore Dewey was more than 6,000 miles away from all aid. Such were the numbers and the disposition of the combatants now about to fight.

With Old Glory flying at every masthead, and with the beating of drums, the American squadron, after a brief reconnoitring détour in the harbor, sailed in a straight line past the fleet of the enemy. Each ship was to hold its fire until near enough to inflict the most damage, when as many shots should be fired as possible. Then to steam as quickly as possible out of effective range; to wheel and return—keeping close to the opposite shore—to the original point of starting, when the same manœuvre was to be repeated—and so again and again till the enemy was destroyed or defeated.

On the Spanish fleet, too, all was bustle and preparation; the national flag, that symbol of mediæval tyranny, floated from every masthead, the admiral's flag on the *Reina Cristina* being the cynosure of all eyes.

The Americans had left their supply-ships behind, and their fleet, according to prearranged plan, steamed slowly past the enemy. Meanwhile the batteries of Cavité kept up an incessant roar, and now Montojo's flag-ship thundered a deadly welcome; while over the American flag-ship was hoisted a code-flag, with the watchword, "Remember the *Maine!*" This was the signal for a concerted yell from the sailors in the fleet. And thus, with colors flying, and with fire reserved till a closer range should make it more effective, the commodore and his brave officers bore down towards the Spaniards, who were awaiting their approach with curiosity not unmixed with alarm, at the same time they sent a thunderous fusillade as a greeting to the hated Yankees.

But the Americans, undeterred, grimly kept their course, notwithstanding one or two mines exploded beneath the water, one near the *Raleigh* and one beside the *Baltimore*. Again and again the Spanish guns thundered, until the roar became incessant and shells were bursting all around. When about 6,000 yards from the Spanish fleet the commodore shouted to Captain Gridley, who was in the conning tower: "Fire as soon as you get ready, Gridley."

Hardly had he given the word, which also was passed down the line, when the whole ship shivered, and the 8-inch gun in the front turret burst into a sheet of flame, while a dull, muffled roar belched forth that awoke the apparent torpor of the whole fleet to instant activity.

The *Baltimore* and the *Boston* now took up the cue, and sent their tremendous shells crashing into the enemy, who replied vociferously. The din was deafening, and over and around all the American ships was the shriek and scream of terrifying shells. Some of these fell upon the decks, some smashed into the woodwork, but, as if providentially, not an American was hit.

"Open with all the guns," signalled the commodore; and all the ships joined together in a roaring chorus, as if Cerberus

and all the dogs of hell had opened their mighty throats.

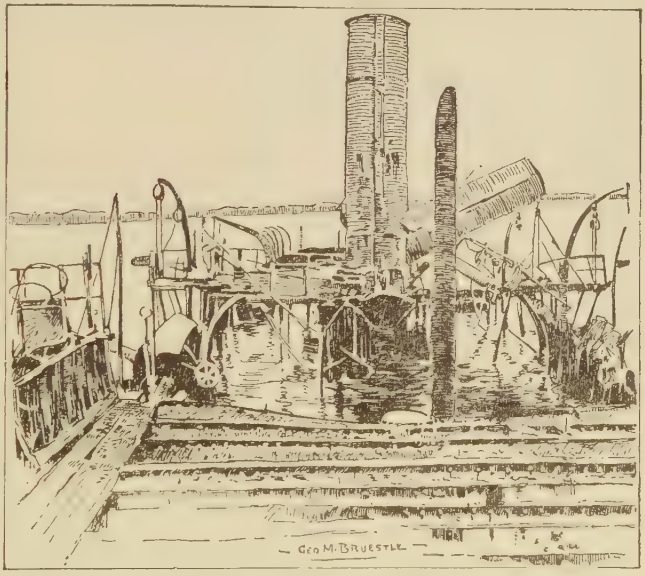
And thus, with incessant firing, the battle-line passed the whole length of the stationary Spanish fleet, then slowly swung round and began the return to its starting-point, keeping up the same flash and clatter, the Spaniards responding furiously. It was at this time that a shot passed clean through the *Baltimore*, though, fortunately, no one was hurt. Lieutenant Brumby had the signal halyard shot out of his hands; while on the *Boston* a shell burst in the state-room of Ensign Dodridge, and another passed through the *Boston's* foremast.

During the third round the *Ralcigh* was carried by the strong current against the bows of two of the Spanish cruisers, where all aboard seemed too bewildered to take advantage of their opportunity. Captain Coughlan, however, did not lose his presence of mind, but poured a destructive broadside into the enemy. His vessel was then carried back into the line.

While this fierce combat was waging the *Reina Cristina* moved out of the Spanish line and made direct for the American flag-ship, which hurled a perfect tornado of steel into the approaching cruiser, her immense hulk being soon riddled with large holes, where the 8-inch shells had entered. The port-bridge, where Admiral Montojo was standing, was also struck, but he bravely stuck to his post, while ton after ton of steel fell upon the deck.

No ship, however, could withstand such a fire, and the gallant *Reina Cristina* turned round and made for the shore. As she swung round Captain Gridley gave her a parting shot that caused her to tremble and stagger, while the 250-pound shell crashed through the bowels of the ship and there exploded, hurling its deadly contents all round, while from the shattered deck rose columns of steam, mingled with human fragments. The ship, now completely disabled, continued her retreat. Sixty of her crew had been killed, and had she continued longer within the Americans' range all would have met a like fate.

Meanwhile, the little *Petrel* was engaged in a duel with two Spanish torpedo-boats, headed for the American line. One of these she chased to the shore, where the crew sought shelter in the woods, while their abandoned vessel was blown into pieces by the daring American. The other advanced to within 500 yards of the *Olympia*, braving the storm of shot and shell that threatened to overwhelm her. As it was, a shell ploughed its way into her middle, where it exploded. From stem to stern she shivered, gave a forward plunge, and sank beneath the waves.



WRECK OF THE REINA CRISTINA.

The *Baltimore*, too, was engaged in an encounter with the *Castilla* that resulted most disastrously to the latter, for she was soon a blazing wreck.

Five times the American fleet passed

in front of the enemy, keeping up the same deadly fire that showed only too well the results of American training and marksmanship. And though the Spanish guns in the ships and the forts ceased rattling not an instant, they neither disconcerted nor damaged in the least the Americans. It was now a quarter to eight, and so dense was the smoke hanging over the waters that it was impossible for the Americans to distinguish not alone the enemy's ships, but their own vessels, and the signals, too.

The commodore now wisely concluded to stop for a while the fighting, and allow his men a chance to take some breakfast; for the brave fellows, after their morning's hard work, were hungry as wolves; so the signal "cease firing" was given, and the ships were headed for the eastern side of the bay, near the transport ships.

It is related that the Spaniards were exceedingly relieved when they saw the Americans in—as they thought—full retreat, and many of them stood on the decks and cheered, thinking they had gained the victory.

When the various commanders came on board to report to Commodore Dewey, it was found that not a ship was disabled, not a gun out of order, not a man killed or injured. It is true Frank B. Randall, the engineer of the *McCulloch*, died from heart-disease as the fleet steamed past Corregidor, but this was not in any wise due to the engagement. Many miraculous escapes, indeed, are related; and it is really wonderful that no serious casualties took place. The sailors, as may easily be imagined, were nearly wild with joy; and, as all hands were piped to breakfast, the decks were gay with merry jackies improvising a dance of victory, while the strains of *Yankee Doodle* and the *Star-Spangled Banner* filled the morning air. Cheery was that breakfast, and sweet, ah, sweet, was the three hours' rest so nobly earned!

At 10.45 the boatswains' whistles and the drums announced the renewal of the battle. Instantly every man was at his post, eager to finish the job so well begun. Again the American squadron was headed towards the enemy's battle-line; but several of the Spanish ships were now disabled, the *Cristina* and the *Castilla* were both on fire, and the *Mindanao* beached not far from Cavité.

Admiral Montojo had meanwhile transferred his flag to the *Isla de Cuba;* and the *Baltimore*, leaving the American line, made straight for his former flag-ship, which threw a torrent of shells towards the intrepid American. The *Baltimore*, however, notwithstanding that a few of these deadly missiles exploded on her deck, wounding eight of her crew, continued her course till within 2,500 yards of her antagonist. Then from her decks she fired a broadside at the Spaniard. There was an ominous silence for a minute or two, and both Spaniards and Americans waited anxiously for the smoke to lift. Suddenly, all saw a sight that struck every man in both fleets with terror, for it seemed the probable fate of all. The *Cristina* shot into the air and then fell back upon the waves with a thunderous crash, while a thousand fragments of men and timbers—promiscuously mingled in awful confusion—were whirling through the air. Down into the waves she sank—that gallant man-of-war—the pride of the Spanish fleet—down into the deep blue sea. Upon the surface, amid tons of floating débris, 100 sailors struggled for life; many sank to rise no more; some, however, succeeded in reaching one of the adjacent consorts.

The *Baltimore*, aided by the *Olympia* and the *Raleigh*, now kept up a deadly fire on the *Juan de Austria*, which answered this terrible fusillade with intermittent volleys, that spoke well for the courage, but poorly for the aim, of her gunners.

It was at this moment that the *Raleigh* sent a shell crashing through the other's centre, exploding her magazine; in an instant she seemed a crater of flame, and sank back like the *Cristina*, a total wreck. Her flying fragments also inflicted such damage upon the gunboat *El Correo*, which lay beside her, that she was completely disabled. The *Petrel* gave her a finishing shot, that closed her brief career. Another Spanish gunboat, the *General Lezo*, also set out to accomplish great things, but the *Concord*, with a few good shots, put a quietus upon her warlike ambition, and, like her sister ships, she too was soon a floating wreck.

Meanwhile, the *Boston* was engaged in a duel with the *Velasco*. Captain Wildes, of the former, stood on the bridge of his ship vigorously fanning with a palm-leaf fan; for it was a hot morning, and it was the captain's policy to keep cool. The *Velasco* responded to the *Boston's* broadsides but feebly. Then with a plunge she careened to one side and sank heavily, her crew having scarcely enough time to escape to the adjacent shore. The *Castilla* had already been set on fire and scuttled by her crew, to prevent her magazine from exploding.

The *Don Antonia de Ulloa*, which was engaged with the *Olympia* and the *Boston*, though riddled with shells and on fire in a dozen places, refused to surrender. Her gallant commander, Robion, stuck to his ship to the very last; then she sank with colors flying, a signal example of Spanish bravery. Another vessel had hauled down her flag, but when a boat's crew from the *McCulloch* approached to take possession of her, she treacherously fired on them. Suddenly from every ship in the American fleet there thundered a swift and awful retribution. There was darkness around her shivering hull, there was a dull explosion and a lurid glare; and when the smoke had rolled away nothing but a few floating fragments were left to indicate the traitor's fate.

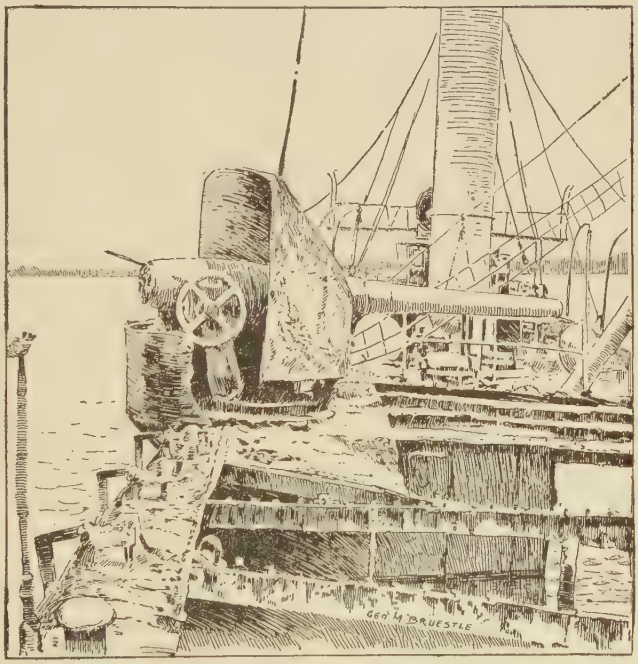
Thus ship after ship of the Spanish fleet met a like fate, until Admiral Montojo, on the deck of the deserted and almost useless *Isla de Cuba*, took down his colors, and, with a few surviving officers, escaped to the shore.

But, notwithstanding the destruction and the surrender of the Spanish fleet, the batteries kept up an incessant fire. The Americans now turned their attention to these, and speedily silenced them. The *Petrel* was left behind to complete the destruction of the smaller gunboats. This she did most effectually.

As the Cavité arsenal unfurled the white flag, the command "Cease firing" was given, and the various American commanders once more gathered on the flagship, their men cheering themselves hoarse.

A most extraordinary victory, truly! Not one man lost, and only six men slightly wounded, all on the *Baltimore;* while the *Baltimore, Olympia,* and *Raleigh* suffered injuries that could be repaired in a few hours.

The Spanish, on the other hand, were almost annihilated, and lost the following vessels: Sunk—*Reina Cristina, Castilla, Don Antonia de Ulloa;* burned—*Don Juan de Austria, Isla de Luzon, Isla de Cuba, General Lezo, Marques del Duero, El*



WRECK OF THE ISLA DE LUZON.

Correo, Velasco, and *Isla de Mindanao;* captured Manila, and several tugs and small launches. Besides this, the enemy lost more than 600 men.

On the day following the engagement, the squadron returned to Cavité, where it took up a permanent position until the arrival of the transports from America. On May 3 the Spanish evacuated Cavité arsenal, which was then held by a detachment from the fleet. The same day the batteries on Corregidor Island surrendered to the *Raleigh* and the *Baltimore.* And thus ended the greatest naval battle in American history.

Manley, JOHN MARS, naval officer; born in Torquay, England, in 1733; became a seaman in early life; settled in Marblehead; commanded a vessel in the merchant service before the Revolutionary War, and was commissioned captain in the naval service by Washington in the fall of 1775. He soon captured in Boston Harbor, with the schooner *Lee,* three valuable prizes laden with heavy guns, mortars, and intrenching tools, much wanted by the patriots besieging Boston. In August, 1776, Congress commissioned him captain, and placed him in command of the frigate *Hancock,* thirty-two guns, in which he captured the British man-of-war *Fox.* The *Hancock* was captured in July, 1777, and Manley was a prisoner during nearly the whole of the war. In September, 1782, he commanded the frigate *Hague,* and cruised in the West Indies. He died in Boston, Mass., Feb. 12, 1793.

Mann, HORACE, educator; born in Franklin, Mass., May 4, 1796; graduated at Brown University in 1819; studied law in Litchfield, Conn., and began practice in Dedham in 1823; was a member of the Massachusetts House of Representatives in 1823–33, and of the Senate in 1833–37. He was always distinguished for his efforts to promote popular education and temperance. He made Boston his residence in 1833, and in 1837–48 was secretary of the Massachusetts board of education. He effected salutary changes in the system of education in Massachusetts and in the laws pertaining to it, and in 1843 visited Europe to examine the educational systems there. From 1848 to 1853 he was the successor of John Quincy Adams in Congress, and, like him, advocated measures for the extinction of slavery in the republic. From 1852 until his death he was president of Antioch College, Ohio. Dr. Mann's annual reports

Horace Mann.

on education deservedly rank high, and some of them were highly extolled in Europe. He died in Yellow Springs, O., Aug. 2, 1859.

Manning, DANIEL, financier; born in Albany, N. Y., May 16, 1831; received a public school education; was for many years connected with the Albany *Argus,* and was also an officer in several financial institutions. He became conspicuously active in the Democratic party in 1872; was chairman of the New York State Democratic Convention in 1881–84; a delegate to the National Democratic Conventions of 1876, 1880, and 1884, and chairman of the convention of 1880. He was Secretary of the United States Treasury in 1885–87. He died in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 24, 1887.

Mansfield, JOHN BRAINARD, author; born in Andover, Vt., March 6, 1826; received an academic education; served with the National army in 1863–64; removed to Kansas in 1882. His publications include the first part of a *History of the New England States* (with Austin J. Cooledge), and *A Sketch of the Political History of the United States of America.* He died in Effingham, Kan., Oct. 29, 1886.

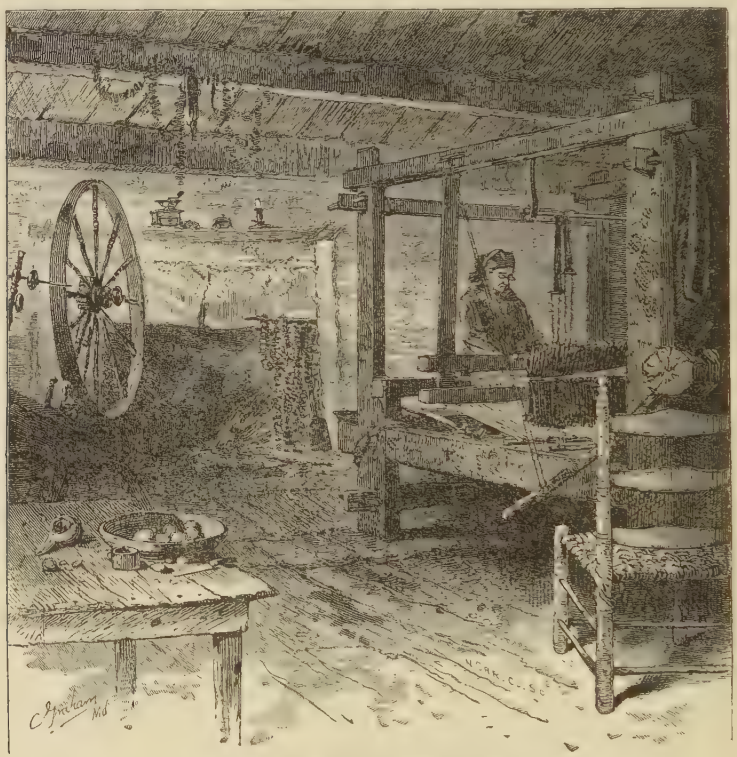
Mansfield, Joseph King Fenno, military officer; born in New Haven, Conn., Dec. 22, 1803; graduated at West Point in 1822, and entered the engineer corps. He served as chief engineer under General Taylor in the war against Mexico, and was brevetted colonel for his services there. In 1853 he was inspector-general, with the rank of colonel; in May, 1861, he was made brigadier-general, and placed in command of the city of Washington, which he thoroughly fortified; was promoted major-general of volunteers, July 18, 1862; and took command of the corps formerly under General Banks. With that he went into the battle of Antietam, and was mortally wounded early in the day, dying Sept. 18.

Mansfield, William Murray, Lord, jurist; born in Scone, Perthshire, Scotland, March 2, 1705; was chief-justice of the King's Bench in 1756–88; and in the famous Somerset case decided that slavery was contrary to the laws of England. He opposed the repeal of the Stamp Act. He died in Highgate, England, March 20, 1793. See Slavery (1771).

Manual Training Schools. An interesting feature in the development of the educational system of the United States is the rapidly growing interest in manual or industrial training. The twentieth century opened with this form of instruction in operation in nearly all of the large cities in the country, and as a part of the public-school system; and the technical schools were giving the most practical instruction in the branches of industrial work that the new business interests and conditions of the country rendered the most advantageous to young men. At the close of the school year 1902, the United States bureau of education received reports from 163 manual or industrial training-schools, of which thirty-nine were exclusively for Indian children. These schools combined were giving training to 49,269 pupils, of whom 29,183 were boys and 20,086 girls. For this total attendance there were 559 teachers. In the schools for Indians there were 4,266 boys and 3,252 girls. An evidence of the popularity and growth of this form of education is found in the fact that in 1890 it was given in thirty-seven cities, and at the close of 1902 in 270 cities. The expenditures in the school year then ended, of 124 of the 270 then reporting, aggregated $1,118,406. Boston, New York, and Chicago have the largest and best of these schools. The following comprises the principal branches of instruction: Carpentry, printing, broom-making, mechanical drawing, free-hand drawing, wood-turning, clay modelling, forging, pattern-making, electricity, sewing, cooking, blacksmithing, general machine-shop work, shoemaking, brick-laying, engineering, plumbing, basket-weaving, metal moulding, tailoring, cabinet-making, painting, hygiene and nursing, baking, sloid farm and garden work, sheet-metal work, power weaving, cotton spinning, textile designing, woollen and worsted spinning, embroidering, fresco painting, architectural drawing, telegraphy, and vise-work.

Manufactures, Colonial. As soon as the American colonies began to manufacture for themselves, they encountered the jealousy of the English manufacturers. The act of 1663 extended to the "vent of English woollens, and other manufactures and commodities." In 1699 Parliament declared that "no wool, yarn, or woollen manufactures of the American plantations should be shipped there, or even laden, in order to be transported thence to any place whatever." This was the beginning of restrictions on our colonial manufactures. In 1719 the House of Commons said that "the erecting of manufactories in the colonies tended to lessen their dependence upon Great Britain." The colonies continually increased in population, and in the products of their industry and economy, and complaints from interested persons were constantly made to the British government that they were not only carrying on trade, but setting up manufactories detrimental to Great Britain. In 1731 the House of Commons directed the board of trade to inquire and report respecting the matter. They reported that paper, iron, flax, hats, and leather were manufactured in the colonies; that there were more manufactories set up in the colonies northward of Virginia, "particularly in New England," than in any other of the British colonies; that they were capable of supplying their own wants in manufactured goods, and therefore det-

rimental to British interests, and made less dependent on the mother-country. The company of hatters in London complained that large numbers of hats were manufactured in New England, and exported to foreign countries; and through their influence an act of Parliament was procured in 1732, not only to prevent such exportation, and to prevent their being carried from one colony to another, but to ited the erection or continuance of any "mill or other engine for slitting and rolling iron, or any plating-forge to work with a belt-hammer, or any furnace for making steel in the colonies, under the penalty of $1,000." Every such mill, engine, plating-forge, and furnace was declared a "nuisance," which, if not abated within thirty days, was subject to a forfeit of $2,500. This was exceedingly op-



WEAVING IN COLONIAL DAYS.

restrain, to a certain extent, the manufacture of them in the colonies. They were forbidden being shipped, or even laden upon a horse or cart, with an intent to be exported to any place whatever. The colonial hatters were forbidden to employ more than two apprentices at the same time; and no negro was permitted to work at the business.

In 1750 an act was passed permitting pig and bar iron to be imported from the colonies to London duty free, but prohibpressive; and some of the colonies, regarding these acts as violations of their charters, obeyed them only sufficiently to prevent an open rupture. The narrow views of publicists like Dr. Davenant and Sir Josiah Child, and the greed of the English manufacturers, stimulated Parliament to the adoption of such unjust measures. Mr. Child, no doubt, expressed the convictions of the English mind when he wrote, in 1670, that "New England was the most prejudicial plantation to the

kingdom." In fact, the people of England from an early period regarded the North American colonies, particularly those of New England, as their rivals in navigation and trade. Child declared that "there is nothing more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother-kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies, plantations, and provinces." Dr. Davenant, who wrote later, was in accordance with these views of Child. The proceedings of the British government were generally in accordance with the views of these writers. It is believed that Adam Smith (1770) was the first English writer who dared to deny, not only the policy, but the justice of these features in the British colonial system.

Marbois, FRANÇOIS DE BARBÉ, MARQUIS DE, diplomatist; born in Metz, France, Jan. 31, 1745; obtained (1779) the appointment of secretary of legation to the United States; and became the principal agent in the most important operations of the embassy while Luzerne was minister. After the return of the latter Marbois remained as *chargé d'affaires*, and resided in America until 1785, arranging all the French consulates. He was afterwards appointed Intendant of Santo Domingo, and returned to France in 1790, when he was sent as ambassador to the German Diet. Having offended the ruling party in the course of the fierce French Revolution, he was condemned to exile at Cayenne. On his return, Bonaparte, then First Consul, nominated him as the first councillor of state, and in 1801 he was made secretary of the treasury. He successfully negotiated the sale of Louisiana to the United States in 1803. He served in conspicuous posts in civil life, and was among the first of the senators who voted for the deposition of Napoleon in 1814. Louis XVIII. created him peer and made him keeper of the seals in 1815. Soon after that he was created a marquis. On Napoleon's return from Elba, Marbois was ordered to quit Paris. After the revolution of July, 1830, he took the oath of allegiance to Louis Philippe. He died in Paris, Jan. 14, 1837.

March, FRANCIS ANDREW, philologist; born in Millbury, Mass., Oct. 25, 1825; graduated at Amherst College in 1845, and admitted to the bar of New York in 1850. He entered the service of Lafayette College in 1855 as an instructor; and since 1856 has been professor of English language and comparative philology there. He has also served the college as adjunct professor of belles-lettres and English literature; lecturer on constitutional and Roman law, and librarian. In 1891 he succeeded James Russell Lowell as president of the Modern Language Association of America. He received the degrees of Litt.D. and D.C.L. from Cambridge University, in 1896, being one of six persons only who have ever been honored with these degrees by Cambridge. Professor March was president of the American Philological Association in 1873–74 and 1895–96; of the Spelling Reform Association in 1876–99; and of the Modern Languages Association in 1891–93. He is author of *The Relation of the Study of Jurisprudence to the Origin and Progress of the Baconian Philosophy; Hamilton's Theory of Perception and Philosophy of the Conditioned; A Method of Philological Study of the English Language; A Parser and Analyzer for Beginners; Comparative Grammar of the Anglo-Saxon Language; Anglo-Saxon Readers.* He is author of *Latin Hymns*, etc.

Marconi, GUGLIELMO, electrician; born in Marzabooto, Italy, Sept. 23, 1875; was educated at the Universities of Bologna and Padua; began experimenting in electricity in 1890. He invented a system of wireless telegraphy, the use of which he tried to sell to the United States government. In 1899 he came to the United States and used this system in reporting election returns in 1900, and the contest for the *America's* Cup in 1901. Constant improvements have been made during the period of 1901 to 1905.

Marcou, JULES, geologist; born in Salins, Jura, France, April 20, 1824; was educated in Paris, and while travelling in Switzerland became interested in scientific investigation. In 1846 he was appointed an assistant in the department of mineralogy in the Sorbonne, and in 1847 travelling geologist for the Jardin des Plantes, in Paris. It was under this last appointment that he came to the United States, and with Prof. Louis Agassiz visited the region around Lake Superior in 1848. During the following year he studied the geology of Pennsylvania, New

Jersey, Virginia, and the Canadian provinces. He returned to Europe in 1850, but was soon again in the United States, and in 1853 entered the service of the government. He was the first geologist to cross the American continent, and during his trip he made a section map of the thirty-fifth parallel from the Mississippi to the Pacific coast. In 1861–64 he had charge of the division of paleontology in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, an institution which he founded in conjunction with Professor Agassiz, in Cambridge, Mass. His publications include *Recherches géologiques sur la Jura Salinois; Geological Map of the United States and British Provinces of North America; Geology of North America; Geological Map of the World; A Catalogue of Geological Maps of America*, etc. He died in Paris, France, April 16, 1898.

Marcy, RANDOLPH BARNES, military officer; born in Greenwich, Mass., April 9, 1812; graduated at the United States Military Academy and commissioned brevet second lieutenant in the 5th Infantry in July, 1832; promoted to first lieutenant in 1837; captain in 1846; major and paymaster in 1859; colonel and inspector-general in 1861; brigadier-general and inspector-general in 1878; and was retired Jan. 2, 1881. At the beginning of the Civil War he was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers; was chief of staff to General McClellan (his son-in-law) till 1863; and served principally on inspection duty through the war. He died in Orange, N. J., Nov. 22, 1887. General Marcy was author of *Explorations of the Red River in 1852; The Prairie Traveller;* and *Thirty Years of Army Life on the Border.*

Marcy, WILLIAM LEARNED, statesman; born in Southbridge, Mass., Dec. 12, 1786; graduated at Brown University in 1808, and taught school in Newport, R. I., for a while. He began the practice of law in Troy, N. Y., and, as an officer of militia, volunteered his services in the War of 1812. He had the honor of taking the first prisoners captured on land, by seizing, Oct. 22, 1812, a corps of Canadian militia at St. Regis. Their flag was the first trophy of the kind captured during the war. In 1816 Captain Marcy was recorder of Troy, where also he edited the Troy *Budget*, a leading Democratic newspaper. In 1821 he was adjutant-general of the State, and State comptroller in 1823. He was made associate justice of the New York Supreme Court in 1829; was United States Senator from 1831 to 1833; and governor from 1833 to 1839. In 1839–42 he was a commissioner to decide upon the claims of the Mexican government, and in 1845–49 was Secretary of War. Governor Marcy opposed all interference with slavery; was Secretary of State from 1853 to 1857, while the subject of slavery was in fearful agitation; and was a plain man, possessed of a clear mind, good judgment, and great integrity. He died at Ballston Spa, N. Y., July 4, 1857.

Mareuil, PIERRE DE. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Maria Christina. See ALFONSO XIII.

Marine Corps, UNITED STATES. The United States Marine Corps was established in Revolutionary times. Congress, in November, 1775, authorized the enlistment of two battalions of marines. After the adoption of the Constitution and the formation of the nation, the Marine Corps became a permanent arm of the service by the act of July 11, 1798, which "established and organized a marine corps." Since then the Marine Corps has been liable, under the President's direction, to do duty in forts and garrisons of the United States, on the sea-coast, or any other duty on shore. The marines, when enlisted, are exempt from arrest for debt or contract. The corps has no regimental organization, but it may be formed into as many companies or detachments as the President may direct. The marines are at all times subject to the laws and regulations of the navy, except when detached by order of the President for service in the army, when they are subject to the rules prescribed for the army. The position of the corps has risen in importance and respect, as it has greatly increased since the establishing of this part of the service. During the war with Spain in 1898 the officers and men of the corps greatly distinguished themselves in the initial land operations in the Santiago campaign, and also in the first movement of foreign forces on Chinese territory in 1900. In 1901 the official force consisted

of one brigadier-general commandant, a general staff of ten officers, five colonels, five lieutenant-colonels, ten majors, fifty-nine captains, fifty-eight lieutenants and fifty-three second lieutenants. The total force comprised 211 officers and 6,000 men.

Marion, Francis, military officer; born near Georgetown, S. C., in 1732; died Feb. 29, 1793. At the age of sixteen, while on a voyage to the West Indies, the vessel in which he sailed foundered at sea, and he was rescued only when several of the crew, who, with himself, had taken to the boat, had died of starvation. Working on a farm until 1759, that year he joined an expedition against the Cherokees. In 1761 he was made a captain, under Colonel Grant. He led the forlorn hope in the battle of Etchowee, and was among the few who escaped death. On the breaking out of the Revolutionary War, Marion was elected to the South Carolina Provincial Congress; became a captain of Provincial troops; served as major in defence of Fort Sullivan; and was lieutenant-colonel of his regiment at Savannah in 1779, and at the siege of Charleston. Appointed a brigadier-general in 1780,

FRANCIS MARION.

he began his famous partisan career with only sixteen men.

He had gathered many partisans to his standard while Cornwallis was carrying out his reign of terror in South Carolina. "Colonel Marion," wrote Cornwallis, "so wrought on the minds of the people that there was scarcely an inhabitant between the Santee and Pedee that was not in arms

MARION'S RESIDENCE.

against us." Some parties even crossed the Santee and carried terror to the gates of Charleston. One of the earliest of Marion's great exploits was near Nelson's Ferry, on the Santee, on Aug. 20, 1780, two days after Williams's exploit at Musgrove's Mill. At dawn on that day a British party, with 150 prisoners of the Maryland line, captured from Gates near Camden (see Gates, Horatio), were crossing at the great savanna, near the ferry, on the route from Camden to Charleston, when Marion and his men sprang upon the guard, liberated the prisoners, and captured twenty-six of the escort.

Marion and his brigade achieved victory after victory over bands of Tories and British among the swamps of the Santee, and late in October they pushed forward to assail the British garrison at Georgetown, on Winyaw Bay, for the purpose of obtaining necessary supplies. This was an unusual and serious undertaking for them. The garrison was on the alert, and in a severe skirmish with a large party near the town Marion was repulsed. He then retired to Snow's Island, at the confluence of Lynch's Creek and the Pedee River, where, in a most secluded spot, he fixed his camp and strengthened its natural defences. It was chiefly high river swamp, covered with forest trees and abounding with game. From that swamp fastness the partisan sent out or led expeditions which, for many weeks, accomplished marvellous results by celerity of movements, stealthiness of approaches to the enemy, and the suddenness and fierceness of the blows. It was in allusion to

these movements that Bryant wrote in his *Song of Marion's Men:*

> "A moment in the British camp—
> A moment—and away,
> Back to the pathless forest,
> Before the break of day."

The British became thoroughly alarmed, and the destruction of Marion's camp became, with them, an object of vital importance.

Tarleton was employed by Cornwallis in searching out partisan corps, such as Marion's and Sumter's. He performed the orders of his general with fidelity. When, on one occasion, he set out to pursue Marion, Cornwallis wrote (Nov. 5, 1780): "I most sincerely hope you will get at Mr. Marion." On that march Tarleton and his corps set fire to all the houses and destroyed all the corn from Camden to Nelson's Ferry; beat the widow of a general officer because she would not tell where Marion was encamped, and burned her dwelling and wasted everything about, not leaving her even a change of raiment. All along the line of their march were seen groups of houseless women and children, who had enjoyed the comforts afforded by ample fortunes before the destroyer came, sitting around fires in the open air. Marion, on the contrary, although equally alert, was always humane. In September, 1780, a band of 200 Tories were sent to surprise him. With only fifty-three men, he first surprised a part of his pursuers and dispersed them, capturing some who had committed great outrages; but he would not allow a prisoner to be hurt. At Black Mingo Creek, on the 28th, he made a successful attack on a guard of sixty militiamen, and made prisoners of those under its escort. At that time the British were burning houses on the Little Pedee. He allowed his men to return to protect their families and property, but would not permit them to retaliate. He wrote afterwards: "There is not one house burned by my orders or by any of my people. It is what I detest, to distress poor women and children."

After the war he married a wealthy lady of Huguenot descent (Mary Videau), and in time became a State Senator. In 1790 he was a member of the State Constitutional Convention. Small in stature, reserved, and very modest, he was exceedingly captivating in manner. His residence was at Pond Bluff, on the Santee, near Nelson's Ferry. It was built by himself soon after his marriage, and there he and his young wife dispensed most generous hospitality. He died Feb. 27, 1795.

Markham, EDWIN, poet; born in Oregon City, Or., in 1852; spent his boyhood on a cattle ranch in central California; received a normal school and collegiate education; and studied law, but never practised. He was employed in the blacksmith trade for a time, and then engaged in educational work, becoming superintendent of the schools of California. Since 1899 he has been principal of the Observation School of the University of California at Oakland. Mr. Markham owns one of the largest and best selected private libraries in the State. He has occasionally contributed to leading magazines for many years; and is most widely known by his poem, *The Man with the Hoe,* which was inspired by Millet's painting of that name, and was first published in the San Francisco *Examiner,* Jan. 8, 1899. This work was followed by various fugitive poems, and *The Man with the Hoe and Other Poems.* In 1901 he inscribed the poem, *Inasmuch,* to the memory of the late Baron and Baroness de Hirsch.

Markham, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in England about 1635. When William Penn, who was his first cousin, secured the charter for Pennsylvania, he appointed him deputy, with power to found courts, dispose of lands, fix boundaries, etc., with the one exception of calling a legislative assembly. He sailed by way of Boston to New York, where, after showing his credentials, the acting governor notified the officials on the Delaware of the transfer of authority. He reached Upland (now Chester), Aug. 3, 1681. Not long after, with a number of surveyors, he chose the site for the city of Philadelphia. In 1691, when the territory which constitutes the present State of Delaware was separated from Pennsylvania, Markham was made deputy governor over it; and in 1694–99 was lieutenant-governor of Pennsylvania, vacating the office on the arrival of a proprietary governor. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., June 12, 1704.

Marmaduke, JOHN SAPPINGTON, military officer; born near Arrow Rock, Mo., March 14, 1833; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1857. When the Civil War broke out he joined the Confederate army under Gen. William J. Hardee in southeastern Arkansas. In recognition of his remarkable bravery at the battle of Shiloh he was commissioned a brigadier-general. He was transferred to the Trans-Mississippi Department in 1862, and for half a year commanded in Missouri and northwestern Arkansas. After frequent raids he forced General Blunt to withdraw to Springfield, Mo. Later, in reward for distinguished services, he was promoted a major-general. In the summer of 1864 he accompanied Gen. Sterling Price in the invasion of Missouri, and though he fought with skill and bravery was finally surrounded and forced to surrender near Fort Scott, on Oct. 24, following. In 1884 he was elected governor of Missouri. He died in Jefferson City, Mo., Dec. 28, 1887.

Marmier, XAVIER, author; born in Pontarlier, France, June 24, 1809; engaged in journalism, travelled in Canada and the northern United States in 1842–45; returned to the United States in 1847, and travelled through the Western States. Later he made several other trips to the United States. His publications include *Travel in California; Letters on America; In America and in Europe; From Paris to San Francisco,* etc. He died in Paris, Oct. 11, 1892.

Marquand, HENRY GURDON, capitalist; born in New York, April 11, 1819; was educated at Pittsfield, Mass.; engaged in the real estate, banking, and railroad business. He has been greatly interested in the work of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, of which he has been president for many years, and to which he has made many costly gifts, including a collection of bronzes valued at $50,000; bonds representing a value of $50,000; and a priceless collection of paintings by Van Dyke, Rubens, Gainsborough, Velasquez, Turner, Franz Hals, Hogarth, Van der Meer, and other old masters. He also built a chapel and (with Robert Bonner) a gymnasium for Princeton University, and, with his brother, a pavilion for Bellevue Hospital. He died in New York City, Feb. 26, 1902.

Marque and Reprisal, LETTERS OF, commissions granted in time of war to a private person commanding a vessel to cruise at sea and make prizes of the enemy's ships and merchandise. The ship so commanded is sometimes called by the same name. The word *Mark* was used by the Germans to denote the right of capturing property beyond the frontier of another province. See PRIVATEERING.

Marquette, JACQUES, missionary and explorer; born in Laon, France, in 1637. In his youth he entered the order of Jesuits, and at the age of twenty-nine years sailed for Canada as a missionary.

STATUE OF JACQUES MARQUETTE.

After residing eighteen months at Three Rivers, on the St. Lawrence, learning the dialects of the Montagnais and other Ind-

ian tribes—also the Huron and Iroquois—he went to Lake Superior in 1668, and founded a mission at Sault Sainte Marie, or Falls of St. Mary, at the outlet of the lake. The next year he was sent to take the place of Allouez among the Ottawas and Hurons, but these tribes were soon afterwards dispersed by the Sioux, and he returned with the Hurons to Mackinaw, near the strait that connects Lakes Michigan and Huron, where he built a chapel and established the mission of St. Ignatius. Hearing of the Mississippi River, he resolved to find it, and in 1669 he prepared for the exploration of that stream, when he received orders to join Joliet in a thorough exploration of the whole course of the great river. That explorer and five others left Mackinaw in two canoes in May, 1673, and, reaching the Wisconsin River by way of Green Bay, Fox River, and a portage, floated down that stream to the Mississippi, where they arrived June 17. Near the mouth of the Ohio River savages told them it was not more than ten days' journey to the sea. Voyaging down the great river until they were satisfied, when at the mouth of the Arkansas River, that the Mississippi emptied into the Gulf of Mexico, and not into the Atlantic or Pacific Ocean, they concluded to return, to avoid captivity among the Spaniards farther south. They had accomplished their errand, and travelled in open canoes over 2,500 miles. Passing up the Illinois River instead of the Wisconsin, they reached Green Bay in September. There, at a mission, Marquette was detained a whole year by sickness. In 1674 he sent an account of his explorations of the Mississippi to Dablon, the superior of the Jesuit mission in Canada, and set out on a journey to Kaskaskia, but was compelled, by his infirmities and severely cold weather in December, to stop at the portage on the Chicago, and there he spent the winter. At the close of March, 1675, he resumed his journey, reached Kaskaskia in April, erected a chapel, and celebrated the Easter festival in it. Warned by his infirmities that his life was near its end, he attempted to return to Mackinaw. He crossed Lake Michigan to its eastern shore, and, entering the mouth of a small stream that bore his name long afterwards, he prepared to die there. His attendants (two Frenchmen) bore him tenderly to a bed of leaves in the shadows of the forest. Then, asking for some holy water which he had prepared, and taking a crucifix from his neck and placing it in the hand of one of his companions, he desired him to keep it constantly before his eyes while he lived. With clasped hands he pronounced aloud the profession of his faith, and soon afterwards died, May 18, 1675. His companions buried him near, and erected a cross at his grave. His remains were afterwards taken to Mackinaw, where they still repose.

Marquette at Lake Michigan.—The following account of his arrival at "the lake of the Ilinois" is from his *Narrative:*

After a month's navigation down the Mississippi, from the 42d to below the 34th degree, and after having published the gospel as well as I could to the nations I had met, we left the village of Akamsea on July 17, 1673, to retrace our steps. We accordingly ascended the Mississippi, which gave us great trouble to stem its currents. We left it indeed, about the 38th degree, to enter another river which greatly shortened our way, and brought us, with little trouble, to the lake of the Ilinois.*

We had seen nothing like this river for the fertility of the land, its prairies, woods, wild cattle, stag, deer, wildcats, bustards, swans, ducks, parrots, and even beaver, its many little lakes and rivers. That on which we sailed is broad, deep, and gentle for 65 leagues. During the spring and part of the summer the only portage is half a league.

We found there an Ilinois town called Kaskaskia, composed of seventy-four cabins. They received us well, and compelled me to promise to return and instruct them. One of the chiefs of this tribe, with his young men, escorted us to the Ilinois Lake, whence at last we returned in the close of September, to the Bay of the Fetid, whence

* Lake Michigan was so called for a long time, probably from the fact that through it lay the direct route to the Ilinois villages, which Father Marquette was now the first to visit. Marest erroneously treats the name as a mistake of geographers, and is one of the first to call it Michigan. The river which Marquette now ascended has been more fortunate: it still bears the name of Ilinois. —*Shea.*

we had set out in the beginning of June. Had all this voyage caused but the salvation of a single soul, I should deem all my fatigue well repaid; and this I have reason to think, for, when I was returning, I passed by the Indians of Peoria. I was three days announcing the faith in all their cabins, after which, as we were embarking, they brought me on the water's edge a dying child, which I baptized a little before it expired, by an admirable Providence for the salvation of that innocent soul.

Marryat, FREDERICK, author; born in London, England, July 10, 1792; joined the British navy in 1812, and served in the war with the United States. He won distinction by driving four vessels out of Boston Harbor, and in 1814, just prior to the battle of New Orleans, further distinguished himself in an engagement with gunboats on Lake Pontchartrain; was promoted captain in 1829. He travelled in the United States in 1839. His publications include *A Diary in America, with Remarks on its Institutions; The Narrative of Monsieur Violet in California, Sonora, and Western Texas, 1839; The Settlers in Canada,* etc. He died in Langham, England, Aug. 2, 1848.

Marsh, GEORGE PERKINS, diplomatist; born in Woodstock, Vt., March 15, 1801; graduated at Dartmouth in 1820; member of Congress, 1842–49; minister to Turkey, 1849–53; minister to Italy, 1861–82. He died in Vallombrosa, Italy, July 23, 1882.

Marsh, OTHNIEL CHARLES, paleontologist; born in Lockport, N. Y., Oct. 29, 1831; graduated at Yale University in 1860. He was called to the chair of Paleontology at Yale University in 1866, which he retained till his death. Later he organized and conducted several scientific expeditions to the Rocky Mountain region. During 1882–99 he was vertebrate paleontologist for the United States geological survey. He discovered more than 1,000 new fossil vertebrates, more than half of which he classified and described. Among his more important finds were a sub-class of birds with teeth, which he named *Odontornithes;* two new classes of large mammals, the *Tillodontia* and *Dinocerata;* several new orders of dinosaurs, supposed to be the largest land animals yet discovered, etc. In 1877 he received the first Bigsby medal given by the Geological Society of London, and in 1898 the Cuvier prize of the French Academy of Sciences. In 1883–95 he was president of the National Academy of Sciences. He was a member of numerous scientific organizations. In 1898 he presented the collections of his lifetime to Yale University, and also gave his estate, having a supposed value of $150,000, to that institution. His publications include *Odontornithes: A Monograph on the Extinct Toothed Birds of North America; Dinocerata: A Monograph of an Extinct Order of Gigantic Mammals;* and *The Dinosaurs of North America.* He died in New Haven, Conn., March 18, 1899.

Marshall, EDWARD CHAUNCEY, author; born in Little Falls, N. Y., July 8, 1824; graduated at Hobart College, Geneva, N. Y., in 1843; was connected with the New York *Star* and the *Evening Telegram* in 1875–85. His publications include *History of the United States Naval Academy; Ancestry of General Grant;* and a paper entitled *Are the West Point Graduates Loyal?*

Marshall, HUMPHREY, statesman; born in Frankfort, Ky., Jan. 13, 1812; graduated at West Point in 1832, and resigned the next year. He served as colonel of cavalry, under General Taylor, in the war against Mexico, leading a charge at Buena Vista. He was in Congress from 1849 to 1852, and from 1855 to 1859, and was sent as commissioner to China. Espousing the cause of the Confederacy, he entered its army; became a brigadier-general; and was defeated by General Garfield at Prestonburg, Ky., in January, 1862. He served afterwards under Gen. Kirby Smith, and after the war practised law in Richmond. He died in Louisville, Ky., March 28, 1872.

Marshall, JOHN, LL.D., jurist; born in Germantown, Fauquier co., Va., Sept. 24, 1755. His father (Thomas) led a regiment that bore the brunt of battle with Cornwallis near the banks of the Brandywine, Sept. 11, 1777. In early youth John obtained a limited classical education, and at the breaking out of the Revolutionary War he entered the military service as lieutenant. He had formerly led some Virginia militia against

Dunmore's troops in the battle of Great Bridge. He, too, was in the battle at the Brandywine; also at Germantown and Monmouth. He left the military service in 1781, and began the practice of law, in which he soon attained eminence. He was in the Virginia convention that ratified the national Constitution, where he distinguished himself by his eloquence and

JOHN MARSHALL.

logic. He became also a conspicuous member of the Virginia Assembly. President Washington offered Marshall the post of Attorney-General, but he declined. On the return of Monroe from France, Washington offered the mission to Marshall, but it, too, was declined. He afterwards accepted the post of special envoy to France from President Adams, and was associated in that fruitless mission with Messrs. Pinckney and Gerry. In 1799 Mr. Marshall was in the Congress, and in 1800 was made Secretary of War, which office he held only a short time. He succeeded Timothy Pickering as Secretary of State, May 3, 1800, and on the resignation of Chief-Justice Ellsworth he was appointed his successor, Jan. 20, 1801, and held the office until his death, in Philadelphia, Pa., July 6, 1835. Chief-Justice Marshall was president of the American Colonization Society and vice-president of the American Bible Society. He was also the author of a *Life of Washington*, published in 5 volumes in 1805. He also wrote a *History of the Colonies Planted by the British in North America.*

Marshall, ORSAMUS HOLMES, historian; born in Franklin, Conn., Feb. 13, 1813; graduated at Union College in 1831; admitted to the bar in 1834; and practised in Buffalo till 1867. His publications include *Champlain's Expedition in 1613–15 against the Onondagas; The Expedition of the Marquis de Nouville in 1689 against the Senecas; La Salle's First Visit to the Senecas in 1699; Historical Sketches of the Niagara Frontier; The Building and the Voyage of the Griffon in 1679;* and *The History of the New York Charter, 1664–74.* He died in Buffalo, N. Y., July 9, 1884.

Martial Law. See MILITARY LAW.

Martin, FRANÇOIS XAVIER, jurist; born in Marseilles, France, March 7, 1762; removed to North Carolina in 1782, where he taught French, learned printing, and established a newspaper. He also published almanacs and school-books, studied law, and began its practice in 1789. Jefferson appointed him a judge of the Mississippi Territory, and he was made attorney-general of the State of Louisiana in 1813. In 1815 he was made a judge of the Supreme Court of Louisiana; remained on that bench for thirty-two years, and was chief-justice from 1837 to 1845. He died in New Orleans, La., Dec. 11, 1846.

Martin, JOSIAH, royal governor; born in Antigua, West Indies, April 23, 1737; was appointed governor of North Carolina in 1771, and became extremely obnoxious to the people by his attempts to thwart the patriotic movements. He denounced the Provincial Congress, and announced his determination to use all the means in his power to counteract their influence. Finding the Assembly firm in their stand against him, he dissolved them, April 8, 1775. Soon after this a letter from the governor to General Gage, asking for a supply of men and ammunition, was intercepted. The people were greatly exasperated. The committee of safety at Newbern seized and carried off six cannon which he had placed in front of the "palace" there. News of hostile preparations reached the governor's ears from every quarter. Becoming alarmed for his personal safety, he fled to Fort Johnson, June 14, on the Cape Fear River, near Wilmington, whence he sent forth, June 16, a menacing proclamation. A plot for

a servile insurrection was discovered in July. It was supposed the governor had planned it, and the indignant people determined to demolish Fort Johnson, and not allow Martin to make it a stronghold. Five hundred of them, led by John Ashe, marched on the fort. The governor fled to the sloop-of-war *Cruiser*, lying in the river, and the people demolished the fort. The patriots disarmed the Tories, and confined as prisoners on their plantations those who were most obnoxious, and the Continental Congress voted to sustain the Whigs in North Carolina with a force of 1,000 men. They prepared to hold a new convention, when Martin, from on shipboard, issued a proclamation forbidding the meeting, and making accusations against the patriots. The Whigs denounced it as "a malicious and scandalous libel, tending to disunite the good people of the province," and it was burned by the common hangman. They authorized the raising of three regiments. Martin never returned, and thus ended royal rule in North Carolina. He died in London, England, in July, 1786.

Martin, LUTHER, jurist; born in New Brunswick, N. J., Feb. 9, 1748; graduated at Princeton in 1766; taught school at Queenstown, Md.; was admitted to the bar in 1771; and soon obtained a lucrative practice in Maryland. He was a decided patriot, but was not found in public office until 1778, when he was attorney-general. He had been a member of a committee to oppose the claims of Great Britain in 1774, and wrote essays and made addresses on the topics of the day. In 1784–85 he was in Congress, and was a member of the convention which framed the national Constitution, the adoption of which he opposed, because it did not sufficiently recognize the equality of the States. He was a defender of Judge Chase when he was impeached, and in 1807 he was one of the successful defendants of Aaron Burr, his personal friend, in his trial for treason, at Richmond. In 1813 Mr. Martin was made chief-justice of the court of oyer and terminer in Baltimore, and in 1818 he again became attorney-general of Maryland. He was stricken with paralysis in 1820, and in 1822 he took refuge with Aaron Burr in New York, broken in health and fortune. Judge Martin was a violent political partisan, and savagely attacked Jefferson and the Democratic party. He died in New York, July 10, 1826.

Martindale, JOHN HENRY, military officer; born in Sandy Hill, N. Y., March 20, 1815; graduated at West Point in 1835; left the army the next year, and became a civil engineer; and finally practised law in Batavia, N. Y. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in August, 1861, and served in the Army of the Potomac, in the campaign of 1862, under Gen. Fitz-John Porter. He was in the Army of the James, and also in the army of the Potomac, in the campaign against Richmond, commanding (in July and September, 1864) the 18th Army Corps. For gallantry at MALVERN HILL (*q. v.*) he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He resigned in 1864, and was made attorney-general of New York in 1866. He died in Nice, France, Dec. 13, 1881.

Martinelli, SEBASTIAN, clergyman; born in Lucca, Tuscany, Aug. 20, 1848; was educated at the Seminary of Lucca, and at the College of St. Augustine, Rome; entered the Augustinian Order in 1863; was ordained to the Roman Catholic priesthood, March 4, 1871; elected prior-general of his order in 1889; and in 1896 was appointed papal delegate to the United States, to succeed Cardinal Satolli, and was consecrated a special archbishop. On April 15, 1901, he was raised to the cardinalate.

Martinez-Campos, ARSENIO, military officer; born in Cuba in 1834; was educated at Madrid; and became a colonel when twenty-nine years old. For a time he served in Morocco and Cuba, and returned to Spain, with the rank of brigadier-general, in 1870, and took part in putting down the Carlist insurrection. Later he declared against the republic and was imprisoned as a conspirator, but after requesting to serve in the Liberal army he was set free, and given the command of a division under Concha. He took part in the battles of Los Munecas and Galdames, and raised the siege of Bilbao. Returning to Madrid he espoused the cause of Alfonso XII., and with Jovellar succeeded in placing the royal heir on the throne. He was next sent into the disturbed territory of Catalonia, which he pacified in less than a month. In 1877

he was ordered to Cuba, to combat the insurrection, and brought about a cessation of hostilities by pledging the Cubans a more liberal government. This pledge he made a strenuous effort to have kept when he became prime minister and minister of war, but the Cortes would not support him, and, feeling his honor violated thereby, he resigned his office (1879). In April, 1895, he was again sent to Cuba, but was unable to accomplish any practical result, and was recalled in January following. He died at Zarauz, Spain, Sept. 23, 1900.

ARSENIO MARTINEZ-CAMPOS.

Martinique. An island in the West Indies. Area, 381 square miles; population, nearly 200,000. On May 8, 1902, St. Pierre, the chief city, was annihilated by the violent eruption of Mont Pelée. In a few minutes over 30,000 persons were smothered by gases or burned to death by lava and fiery stones. Simultaneously over 2,000 persons lost their lives in the neighboring island of St. Vincent. The United States lavished money and stores on the panic-stricken survivors.

Martyn, CARLOS, clergyman; born in New York City in 1843; graduated at Union Theological Seminary in 1869; ordained in the Presbyterian Church; held various pastorates, including one in New York, in 1876–90. His publications include *English Puritans; Pilgrim Fathers; History of the Huguenots; Wendell Phillips; Christian Citizenship; William E. Dodge*, etc.

Marvel, ANDREW. See MIDDLETON, ARTHUR.

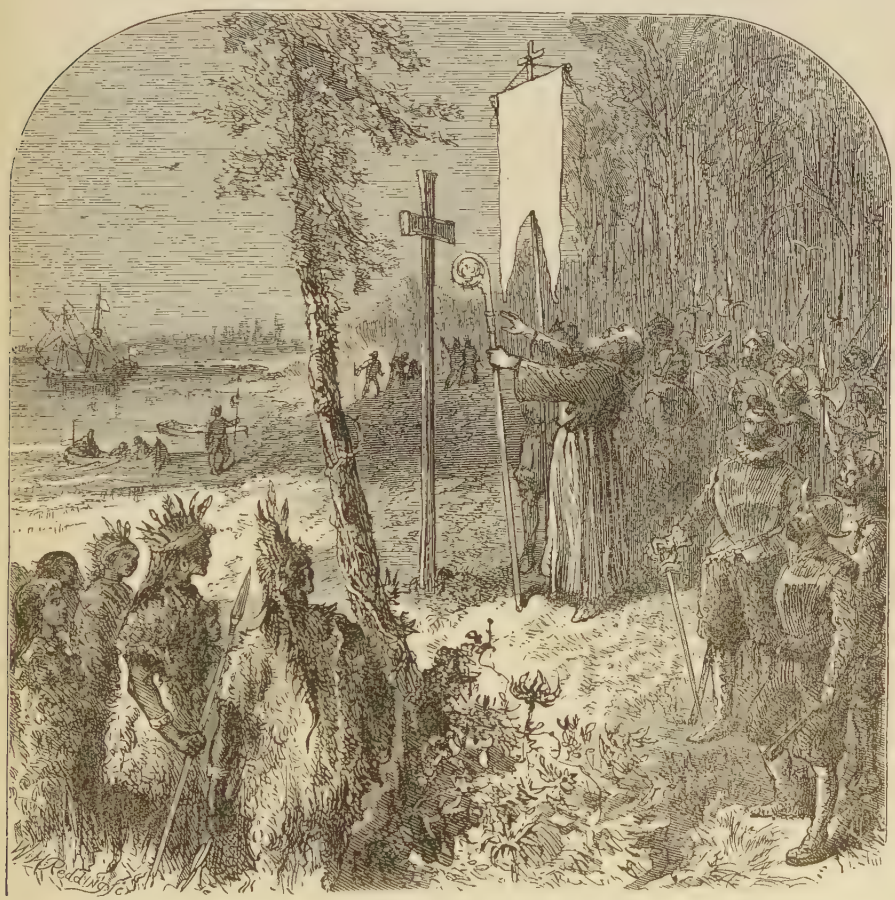
MARYLAND, STATE OF

Maryland, STATE OF, one of the original thirteen States of the Union; was first settled by Capt. William Claiborne, with a party of men from Virginia, in 1631. Earlier than this, George Calvert, an Irish peer, had obtained a patent from King James (1622) to plant a Roman Catholic colony in America. Failing in some of his projects, he applied for a charter for the domain between south and north Virginia, but before the matter was completed he died, and a patent was issued to his son Cecil Calvert, June 20, 1632 (see BALTIMORE, LORDS), who inherited the title of his father. The province embraced in the grant had been partially explored by the first Lord Baltimore, and it is believed that the charter granted to Cecil was drawn by the hand of George Calvert. In honor of Henrietta Maria, Queen of Charles I., it was called *Terra Mariæ*—Mary's Land—hence Maryland. It was the most liberal grant yet made by a British sovereign, both in respect to the proprietor and the settlers. The government of the province was made independent of the crown, and equality in religious

STATE SEAL OF MARYLAND.

and civil freedom was secured to every Christian sect excepting the Unitarians.

This toleration promoted the growth of the colony, and persecuted people found a refuge there. Armed with this charter, young Lord Baltimore set about the business of colonizing his domain. He appointed his half-brother, LEONARD CALVERT (*q. v.*), governor, and Nov. 22, 1633, that kinsman and another brother, "with very near twenty other gentlemen of very good fashion and 300 laboring-men" (so Lord Baltimore wrote to Wentworth), sailed from Cowes, Isle of Wight, in two vessels, the *Ark* and *Dove*, accompanied by two Jesuit priests, Andrew White and John Altham. The Calverts and the other "gentlemen," and some of the "laboring-men," were Roman Catholics, but a greater portion of the latter were Protestants. After a terribly tempestuous voyage, in which the vessels were separated, they met at Barbadoes and finally entered the broad mouth of the Potomac River, in February, 1634. They sailed up the Potomac, and upon Blackstone Island (which they named St. Clement's) they landed, performed religious ceremonies, and were visited by the wondering natives.



THE LANDING ON BLACKSTONE ISLAND.

The governor made further explorations, and, finally, on March 27 (O. S.), Calvert, having entered into a treaty for the purchase of a domain on a pleasant little river, determined there to plant a settlement. With imposing religious ceremonies it was dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and the place was called St. Mary. It was near the entrance of the Potomac into Chesapeake Bay. A year afterwards, they established their capital at St. Mary, and a legislative assembly composed of the whole people—a purely democratic legislature—met there. As their ranks increased by emigration this method was found inconvenient, and in 1639 a representative government was established, the people being allowed to send as many delegates as they pleased. So was founded the commonwealth of Maryland. Claiborne, the first settler, refused to acknowledge the new government, and was finally expelled from Kent Island. Under the charter, Lord Baltimore had the power of enacting all necessary laws for the colony "with the advice, consent, and approbation of the freemen of the province" or their representatives convened in general assembly; but in the first Assembly (1635) a dispute arose respecting the right of initiating legislation. The contention continued until 1638, when Lord Baltimore yielded the right to the Assembly.

ARMS OF THE CALVERT FAMILY.

The first statutes of Maryland were enacted in 1639. In 1642 a company of Puritans, who had been driven out of Virginia, settled in Maryland, and soon showed a spirit of resistance to the authorities. Claiborne, who had been deprived of his property and civil rights by the legislature of Maryland, now reappeared at Kent Island and stirred up the Indians with jealousy of the colonists, and they made war upon the settlers. It was not long nor very distressing, and it was just ended (1645) when Claiborne, by false representations, fanned the embers of discontent into a flame of civil war. The insurgents, with disaffected Indians, drove the governor and his council into Virginia, and for about a year and a half the rebels held the reins of power. The rebellion was crushed in the summer of 1647, when the governor returned (in August) and resumed his chair. Many of the records had been destroyed in the turmoil, and a greater portion were carried into Virginia and lost. In 1649 an important law called the toleration act was passed, which simply reaffirmed the provisions of the charter concerning religious freedom.

The Puritans in Maryland called their chief settlement Providence, which was afterwards changed to Annapolis. Leonard Calvert died in 1647, and was succeeded by Thomas Greene; but on the death of the King (1649), Lord Baltimore professed to be a Protestant, and appointed William Stone, of Virginia, a warm friend of Parliament and a Protestant, governor. The Parliament, not having confidence in Lord Baltimore's professions, removed Stone from office and appointed commissioners to administer the government. Claiborne was one of them, so also was Governor Bennet, of Virginia. These commissioners entered upon their duties with a high hand. They removed Governor Stone, took possession of the records, and abolished the authority of Lord Baltimore. So the "outlaw" trampled on his old enemy. A few months later they reinstated Stone, and put Kent and Palmer's islands into the possession of Claiborne again.

On the dissolution of the Long Parliament (1653), Cromwell restored Lord Baltimore's power as proprietor, and Stone proclaimed the actions of the commissioners rebellious. The incensed commission-

ers returned to Maryland and compelled Stone to surrender his office; then they vested the government in a board of ten commissioners. Civil and religious disputes now ran high. The Puritans, being in the majority in the Assembly, passed an act disfranchising the Roman Catholics and members of the Church of England. These narrow-minded bigots flogged and imprisoned Quakers, and tried to hold sway as their co-religionists did in Massachusetts. Baltimore appealed to Cromwell, and the latter sent word to the commissioners in Maryland not "to busy themselves about religion, but to settle the civil government." So encouraged, Baltimore directed Stone to raise an army for the restoration of the authority of the proprietor. He obeyed. Stone's forces were mostly Roman Catholics. He seized the colonial records, resumed the office of governor, and inaugurated civil war. A sharp and decisive battle was fought near Providence (Annapolis) early in April, 1655, when many of Stone's party were killed or taken prisoners, and he was defeated and became a captive. His life was spared, but four others were executed, having been convicted of treason. Anarchy reigned in Maryland for several months, when Lord Baltimore appointed Josiah Fendall, a former insurgent, governor. For two years longer there was bitter strife between the people and the agent of the proprietor. The latter finally made important concessions to the popular demands. Fendall acted discreetly, and there was comparative quiet in the colony until the death of Cromwell.

In the spring of 1660, the people, boldly asserting popular supremacy, assumed the legislative powers and gave Fendall a commission as governor. The restoration of monarchy in England soon afterwards led to the reinstatement of Lord Baltimore in his rights, and Fendall was found guilty of treason because he had accepted office from a "rebellious Assembly." Baltimore proclaimed a general pardon of all political offenders, and for thirty years afterwards Maryland enjoyed repose. Lord Baltimore died in 1675, and was succeeded by his son Charles; and he and his successors continued to administer the government of the province, with a few interruptions, until the Revolutionary War. The revolution in England (1678) shook the colony. The deputy governor hesitated to proclaim William and Mary, and a restless spirit named Coode made this a pretext for exciting the people by giving currency to a story that the local magistrates and the Roman Catholics were about to join the Indians and exterminate the Protestants. The old religious feud instantly flamed out with intensity. The armed Protestants, led by Coode, took forcible possession of the capital of the province (September, 1689), and assumed the administration of the government. They called a convention, invested it with legislative functions, and by that body public affairs were managed until June, 1691, when the sovereign of England, ignoring the rights of Lord Baltimore, made Maryland a royal province, with Lionel Copley governor.

In 1694 the capital of the province was transferred from St. Mary to the town soon afterwards named Annapolis, where it yet remains. The proprietary rights of Baltimore (Benedict Leonard Calvert) were restored to his infant son and heir (Charles) in 1716, and the original form of government was re-established. So it remained until the Revolutionary War.

The city of Baltimore was created by act of the Assembly, Aug. 8, 1729, and named in honor of Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore. The town was laid out January 12, 1730. Population in 1752 was 200; in 1790, 13,503; in 1890, 434,439; in 1900, 508,957.

Maryland was disposed to be very conservative on the question of independence. Its convention voted, May 20, 1776, that it was not necessary to suppress every exercise of royal authority. Several intercepted letters, written by Governor Eden, which had just come to light, caused Congress to recommend his arrest. The Baltimore committee volunteered in the matter, but became involved, in consequence, in a collision with the provincial convention. A committee of that body reported, on investigation, that the governor, in his correspondence with the British ministry, had not acted in a hostile character; but, at the same time, it was voted to signify to Governor Eden that the public safety and quiet required him to leave the province, which he did.

LAYING OUT BALTIMORE, JAN. 12, 1730.

While stirring events were occurring on the New England coast and the Northern frontier in 1814, others of equal importance occurred in the vicinity of Chesapeake Bay and the national capital. There were premonitions of impending danger in that region early in 1814. News reached the government that 4,000 British troops, destined for the United States, had landed at Bermuda. This news was followed by the arrival, in Lynn Haven Bay, of Admiral Cockburn, with a strong naval force, to begin the work indicated in Admiral Cochrane's order to "destroy the seaport towns and ravage the country." In April news came of the downfall of Napoleon and of his abdication, which was expected to release British veterans from service in Europe. Notwithstanding the national capital was then almost defenceless, the passage of the British ships up the Potomac might be disputed only by the guns of Fort Washington, a few miles below the city, and there was little force to obstruct the passage of land troops across Maryland from the Chesapeake. On July 1 official intelligence reached the President that "a fleet of transports, with a large force, bound to some port in the United States, probably on the Potomac," was about to sail from Bermuda. In the military district of which the District of Columbia formed a part there were only a little more than 2,000 effective men under General Winder, and these were scattered at points some distance from each other. There was a company of marines at the barracks at Washington, and a company of artillery at Fort Washington. With all this knowledge of weakness and impending danger, the Secretary of War, whose opinions governed the President and cabinet, could not be persuaded that the capital was likely to receive any harm. The government organ, the *National Intelligencer*, boasted that any British force that might come could be easily driven away. The folly of this boast was soon made manifest by sad events.

General Winder continually warned the

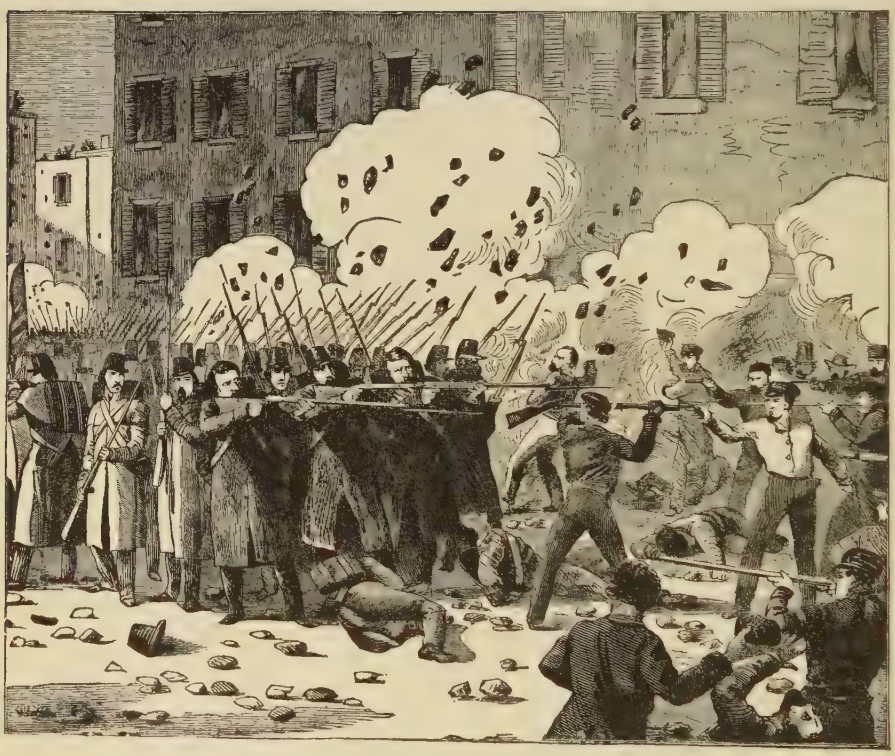
government of danger; and when danger actually appeared he was placed, by official orders, at the head of 15,000 militia for the defence of the capital. This army was on paper only. The militia lay hidden in official orders; and when, at the middle of August, a powerful British land and naval force appeared in Chesapeake Bay, Winder had only a handful of men with which to defend the capital. The call for the militia was tardily answered, for they feared the loss of their slaves if the masters should leave the plantations. There was widespread alarm over Maryland and Virginia. At that juncture Commodore Barney, with an armed schooner and fifteen barges, was in the Patuxent River, near its mouth. He fled up the stream to avoid attack by British vessels. The latter landed a strong force, under General Ross, and pushed on towards Washington. Winder issued stirring appeals for the militia to turn out, and asked General Smith, of Baltimore, to turn out his brigade. The British pursued Barney and caused the destruction of his flotilla. Pressing on towards the capital, they were met by troops under Winder at Bladensburg, when a severe engagement ensued, which resulted in victory for the invaders. Then they marched on Washington, set fire to its public buildings, and gave the town up to plunder. Only the Patent Office building was saved. The vessels and other public property at the navy-yard were destroyed by the Americans to prevent them falling into the hands of the British. The total value of the property annihilated by the Americans and British at that time was estimated at about $2,000,000.

"Willingly," said the London *Statesman*, "would we throw a veil of oblivion over our transactions at Washington. The Cossacks spared Paris, but we spared not the capital of America." While Ross was crossing Maryland to the national capital a British fleet, under Commodore Gordon, went up the Potomac and plundered Alexandria, on the Virginia shore. The British retreated to their ships after desolating the capital, and, flushed with success, they attempted to capture Baltimore. Rose landed with 9,000 troops at North Point, 12 miles from Baltimore, on Sept. 12, and proceeded to march on the city, when he was confronted by an American force under General Stricker and driven back. Ross was killed, and his troops fled to their ships. At the same time the British fleet sailed up Patapsco Bay and bombarded Fort McHenry, that guarded Baltimore Harbor. They were repulsed, and ships and troops, discomfited, left the Chesapeake to operate on the more southern regions of the American coast. See BALTIMORE.

It was very important in carrying out the plan of the Confederates, early in 1861, to seize the national capital, to have the authorities of the State of Maryland in accord with the movement. Emissaries and commissioners from the cotton-growing States were early within its borders plying their seductive arts; and they found in Baltimore so many sympathizers among leading citizens that, for a while, they felt sure of the co-operation of Maryland. In the governor, Thomas H. Hicks, however, they found a sturdy opponent of their schemes. It is said that on Jan. 1, 1861, there were no less than 12,000 men organized in that State, bound by solemn oaths to follow their leaders in seizing Washington, D. C. Against such an array, against the natural sympathy of blood-relationship with the Southern people, and against the seeming self-interest of the holders of 700,000 slaves, valued at $50,000,000, which property might be imperilled, they thought, by alliance with the North, Governor Hicks manfully contended. He was supported by an eminently loyal people among the so-called "masses." Hicks was urged by the Confederates to call a meeting of the legislature to consider the state of affairs; but he too well knew the danger that would attend the gathering of a body largely made up of slave-holders, and he steadily refused to make the call. In fact, he had been informed that the members of the legislature had already formed a plan for "carrying Maryland out of the Union," and resolutions to that effect had already been drawn. These facts he set forth in an address to the people of his State, Jan. 6, 1861, which delighted the Unionists. Already the late Henry Winter Davis, a Representative of the Baltimore district in Congress, had published (Jan. 2, 1861) a powerful appeal against the calling of

a meeting of the legislature, or the assembling of a Border State convention, as had been proposed. The Confederates denounced Hicks as a traitor, and tried every means to counteract his influence, but in vain. A strong Union party was organized. Maryland became the great battle-field of opposing opinion. The Union men triumphed; and within the space of four years slavery was abolished in Maryland, not only by the Proclamation of Emancipation, but by the constitutional act of its own authorities.

For a while after the attack on Massachusetts troops in BALTIMORE (*q. v.*), the Unionists of Maryland were almost silenced. The legislature was filled with disloyal men. Abettors of the mob in Baltimore, who were members of the legislature, proposed laws to shield the rioters from harm. S. T. Wallis proposed for that purpose, "That the measures adopted and conduct pursued by the authorities of the city of Baltimore on Friday, April 19, and since that time, be and the same are hereby made valid by the General Assembly." This would cover the disloyal acts of the mayor, the chief of police, the murderous rioters, and the bridge-burners. To further shield the offenders, T. Parkins Scott offered in the same body a bill to suspend the operations of the criminal laws, and that the grand jury should be estopped from finding indictments against any of the offenders. These measures alarmed the best friends of the commonwealth, and added strength to the sympathy for the Union cause in that State. When General Butler, by a single, bold stroke, revealed the real weakness of the Confederate element in Maryland, the Unionists breathed freer, and very soon manifested their strength.



THE MASSACHUSETTS SIXTH ATTACKED WHEN MARCHING THROUGH BALTIMORE.

May 14, 1861, was a memorable one in

the annals of Maryland. On that day the legislature adjourned, and Governor Hicks, relieved of the presence of the Confederate element, and assured by the Secretary of War that National troops would remain in Maryland as long as seeming necessity demanded their presence, issued a proclamation calling for Maryland's quota of troops (four regiments) in response to the President's call. On that day the veteran Maj. W. W. Morris, commander of Fort McHenry, first gave practical force to the suspension of the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* which the exigency of the times gave constitutional sanction for. A man claiming to be a Maryland soldier was imprisoned in Fort McHenry. A Baltimore judge issued a writ of *habeas corpus* for his release. Morris refused to obey, saying, in a letter: "At the date of issuing your writ, and for two weeks previous, the city in which you live and where your court has been held was entirely under the control of revolutionary authorities. Within that period, United States soldiers, while committing no offence, had been perfidiously attacked and inhumanely murdered in your streets; no punishment had been awarded, and, I believe, no arrests had been made for these atrocious crimes; supplies of provisions intended for this garrison had been stopped; the intention to capture this fort had been boldly proclaimed; your most public thoroughfares had been daily patrolled by large numbers of troops armed and clothed, at least in part, with articles stolen from the United States, and the federal flag, while waving on the federal offices, was cut down [by order of the chief of police Kane] by some person wearing the uniform of a Maryland soldier. To add to the foregoing, an assemblage elected in defiance of law, but claiming to be the legislative body of your State, and so recognized by the executive of Maryland, was debating the federal compact. If all this be not rebellion, I know not what to call it. I certainly regard it as sufficient legal cause for suspending the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus*."

At the request of the governors of many States the President, on July 1, 1862, called for 300,000 volunteers to serve during the war; and in August he called for 300,000 more for three months, with the understanding that an equal number would be drafted from the citizens who were between eighteen and forty-five years of age, if they did not appear among the volunteers. These calls were cheerfully responded to; and the Confederate government, alarmed, ordered General Lee to make a desperate effort to capture the national capital before the new army should be brought into the field. Lee perceived that it would be madness to make a direct attack upon its formidable defences, so he resolved to cross the Potomac with a large force into Maryland, assail Baltimore, and, if successful, to fall upon Washington in the rear. He believed the people of Maryland were chafing under the dominion of the national government; that they were eager to aid the Confederate cause; and that the presence of his army on the soil of Maryland would cause an immediate and almost universal uprising in favor of the Confederacy. Lee was joined, Sept. 2, 1862, by the fresh division of Gen. D. H. Hill. This was sent as a vanguard to Leesburg, Va. The whole Confederate army followed, and between the 4th and 7th crossed the Potomac at the Point of Rocks, and encamped not far from the city of Frederick, on the Monocacy River. There General Lee, on the 8th, issued a stirring appeal in the form of a proclamation to the people of Maryland. He was sorely disappointed. Instead of a general uprising in his favor, he lost more men by desertions than he gained by accessions.

When General McClellan heard of this invasion, he left General Banks with some troops at Washington, and with about 90,000 men crossed the Potomac above Washington and advanced cautiously towards Frederick. At McClellan's approach Lee withdrew. There the plan for seizing Washington was discovered. It was to take possession of Harper's Ferry and open communication with Richmond, by way of the Shenandoah Valley, and then, marching towards Pennsylvania, entice McClellan's forces in that direction. At a proper time Lee was to turn suddenly, defeat his antagonist, and then march upon Washington. See SOUTH MOUNTAIN.

After the battle at CHANCELLORSVILLE (*q. v.*) Lee's army was strong in material and moral force. Recent successes

had greatly inspirited it. It was reorganized into three army corps, commanded respectively by Generals Longstreet, A. P. Hill, and Ewell. At no time, probably, during the war was the Confederate army more complete in numbers, equipment, and discipline, or furnished with more ample materials for carrying on the conflict, than it was at the middle of June, 1863, when Lee invaded Maryland. According to Confederate official returns, there were at least 500,000 men on the army rolls, and more than 300,000 "present and fit for duty." Richmond seemed secure from harm. Vicksburg and Port Hudson, on the Mississippi, seemed impregnable against any National forces that might be employed against them. Their European friends gave them great encouragement, for there were strong manifestations of desires for the acknowledgment of the independence of the "Confederate States of America."

Feeling thus strong, the Confederate authorities ordered Lee to invade Maryland and Pennsylvania. His force was now almost equal to that of Hooker, and in better spirits than was the Army of the Potomac. As early as May 20 Hooker suspected such a movement would be undertaken, and informed the Secretary of War. Earlier than this, Clement C. Barclay, of Philadelphia, who had rare opportunities for information, had warned the authorities at Washington, Baltimore, and Harrisburg of impending danger, but they were slow to believe Lee would repeat the folly of the previous year. Lee's first movement in that direction was to get Hooker from the Rappahannock by feints and a real flanking movement. There was considerable preliminary cavalry skirmishing early in June, and finally a cavalry reconnoissance by Pleasonton revealed the fact of Lee's grand movement. Hooper supposed he would follow his route of the previous year, and was watching and guarding the fords of the Rappahannock, when Lee projected his right wing, under Ewell, through the Blue Ridge into the Shenandoah Valley at Strasburg. He pushed down the valley to Winchester, where General Milroy was in command of nearly 10,000 men, on the evening of June 13, having marched 70 miles in three days. It was a bold movement. Milroy called in his outposts and prepared to fight, but before daybreak he resolved to retreat. He spiked his cannon, drowned his powder, and was about to depart, when the Confederates fell upon him.

Then began a race towards the Potomac, but the Nationals were stopped by a force some miles from Winchester, and many of them made prisoners. The garrison at Harper's Ferry fled across the river to Maryland Heights. Informed of Lee's movement, Hooker moved rapidly northward, intent upon covering Washington, while his cavalry watched the passes of the Blue Ridge. The national authorities, as well as those of Maryland and Pennsylvania, were thoroughly aroused by a sense of danger. The President called (June 15) upon the States nearest the capital for an aggregate of 100,000 militia; and the governor of Pennsylvania called out the entire militia of the State. Lee had about a week the start of Hooker in the race for the Potomac. On the 15th 1,500 Confederate cavalry dashed across the Potomac at Williamsport, in pursuit of Milroy's wagon-train; swept up the Cumberland Valley to Chambersburg, Pa.; destroyed the railroad in that vicinity; plundered the region of horses, cattle, and other supplies; and, with fifty kidnapped negroes, going back to Hagerstown, waited for Lee. The information procured by the raiders satisfied Lee that he should not meet with much opposition, and he pressed forward. Ewell's corps crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, near Shepherdstown, on June 21 and 22, and swept on to Chambersburg, and thence to the Susquehanna, opposite Columbia, levying contributions on the people.

The greatest alarm everywhere prevailed. It was believed that Harrisburg and Philadelphia would soon be entered by the Confederates, and vast quantities of valuable property were sent north from the latter city for safety. Even New York seemed menaced. The remainder of Lee's army crossed the Potomac on the 24th and 25th, and pressed on after Ewell towards the Susquehanna. Hooker's army, now fully 100,000 strong, crossed the river at Edwards's Ferry. Regarding Harper's Ferry, at that moment, of little account, he asked for the abandonment

of that vicinity by 11,000 National troops. The general-in-chief (Halleck) would not consent, and Hooker, at his own request, was at once relieved of his command, and was superseded by Gen. George C. Meade on June 28.

At the beginning of July, 1864, Maryland was invaded by the Confederates for the third time. The Confederate General Early had been gathering troops for the purpose in the Shenandoah Valley, and with from 15,000 to 20,000 men, of all arms, he swept rapidly down the valley towards Williamsport. General Sigel, too weak to resist, fled into Maryland, with a heavy loss of stores, and General Weber, in command at Harper's Ferry, retired to Maryland Heights. Early crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, and pushing on to Hagerstown, July 6, 1864, levied a contribution on the inhabitants there of $20,000. Then he hastened on to Frederick, on the Monocacy River, and threatened both Baltimore and Washington. The raid had a twofold purpose—to draw troops from before Petersburg for the defence of Washington, and to plunder. When informed of it, General Grant sent the 6th Corps to protect Washington. Meanwhile Gen. Lew. Wallace (then in command of the Middle Department, with his headquarters in Baltimore) had proceeded from that city, with a few troops hastily collected, to confront the invaders. Gen. E. B. Tyler was then at the railway bridge over the Monocacy with about 1,000 men. Wallace went to Tyler's camp, saw the necessity for prompt and energetic action, and chose a commanding position on the east side of the Monocacy for the concentration of his forces. On the 9th he fought the hosts of Early desperately not far from Frederick. He had been joined by a portion of Rickett's brigade, from the advance of the 6th Corps. This handful of men, after fighting overwhelming

CONFEDERATES CROSSING THE POTOMAC.

numbers eight hours, was defeated, with heavy loss, when Early pushed on towards Washington. The vanquished Nationals had really won a victory, for they had detained the Confederates long enough that evening to allow the 6th and 19th Corps to reach and secure the national capital.

When Early perceived this he pushed across the Potomac at Edwards's Ferry with a large amount of plunder, closely pursued by General Wright to the Shenandoah Valley. He was struck by the Nationals at Snicker's Ferry and at Snicker's Gap, and sharp skirmishes ensued. At Ashby's Gap there was also a brisk skirmish, and in two encounters the Nationals lost about 500 men. Early moved up the valley as if continuing his retreat, when General Wright, handing his command over to General Crook, returned to Washington. Meanwhile General Averill, with a considerable force, moved towards Winchester, and near that place he fought the Confederates, July 20, three hours. They lost 400 men (about 200 of them made prisoners), with four guns. Averill's loss was about 200. It was supposed Early was moving up the valley, but Crook, marching from Harper's Ferry to Winchester, soon afterwards encountered him in heavy force, and he was driven back, July 23, to Martinsburg, with a loss of 1,200 men. Early sent 3,000 cavalry, under General McCausland, to make a plundering and devastating raid in the direction of the Susquehanna. They swept over the country in eccentric lines, bewildering its defenders, and on July 30 entered the defenceless and partly deserted village of Chambersburg, Pa., and demanded of the inhabitants $200,000 in gold or $500,000 in "greenbacks" (paper currency) as a tribute to insure the town against destruction. The tribute was not offered, and two-thirds of the town was laid in ashes. No time was given for the removal of the sick, infirm, women, or children. General Averill, with 2,600 cavalry, was soon after the raiders. He drove them across the Potomac with such blows that they did not stop to plunder and destroy. Mosby, another guerilla chief, dashed across the Potomac and carried off a few horsemen. Averill pursued the Confederates up the south branch of the Potomac, attacked and defeated them, Aug. 4, 1864, at Moorfield, captured their guns, trains, and 500 men, with a loss to himself of fifty men. Grant now, to protect Washington from seizure, and Maryland and Pennsylvania from invasion, consolidated several departments, calling the organization the Middle Division. General Sherman was assigned to its command, Aug. 7, 1864, and at once entered upon his duties, at the head of over 30,000 troops. See UNITED STATES, MARYLAND, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS UNDER THE BALTIMORES (Proprietary).

Name.	Term.
Leonard Calvert	1637 to 1647
Thomas Greene	1647 " 1648
William Stone	1648 " 1654
	1654 " 1658
Josias Fendall	1658 " 1660
Philip Calvert	1660 " 1662
Charles Calvert	1662 " 1676
Thomas Notley	1677 " 1680
Charles, Lord Baltimore	1681 " 1689

UNDER THE ENGLISH GOVERNMENT (Royal).

John Coode and the Protestant association	1690 to 1692
Sir Lionel Copley	1692 " 1693
Francis Nicholson	1694 " 1695
Nathaniel Blackstone	1696 " 1702
Thomas Trench	1703 " 1704
John Seymour	1704 " 1708
Edward Lloyd	1709 " 1713
John Hart	1714 " 1715

UNDER THE BALTIMORES RESTORED (Proprietary).

John Hart	1715 to 1719
Charles Calvert	1720 " 1726
Benedict L. Calvert	1727 " 1730
Samuel Ogle	1731 " 1732
Charles, Lord Baltimore	1732 " 1733
Samuel Ogle	1734 " 1741
Thomas Bladen	1742 " 1745
Samuel Ogle	1746 " 1751
Benjamin Tasker	1752
Horatio Sharpe	1753 to 1768
Robert Eden	1769 " 1774

UNDER THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.

Thomas Johnson	1777 to 1779
Thomas Sim Lee	1780 " 1782
William Paca	1783 " 1784
William Smallwood	1785 " 1788

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

John E. Howard	1789 to 1790
George Plater	1791 " 1792
Thomas Sim Lee	1793 " 1794
John H. Stone	1795 " 1797
John Henry	1798
Benjamin Ogle	1799 to 1801
John F. Mercer	1802 " 1803
Robert Bowie	1804 " 1805
Robert Wright	1806 " 1808
Edward Lloyd	1809 " 1810
Robert Bowie	1811 " 1812
Levin Winder	1813 " 1814
Charles Ridgely	1815 " 1817
Charles W. Goldsborough	1818 " 1819
Samuel Sprigg	1820 " 1822
Samuel Stevens, Jr.	1823 " 1825
Joseph Kent	1826 " 1828
Daniel Martin	1829

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION—*Continued.*

Name.	Term.
Thomas K. Carroll	1830
Daniel Martin	1831
George Howard	1831 to 1832
James Thomas	1833 " 1835
Thomas W. Veazey	1836 " 1838
William Grayson	1839 " 1841
Francis Thomas	1842 " 1844
Thomas G. Pratt	1845 " 1847
Philip F. Thomas	1848 " 1850
Enoch L. Lowe	1851 " 1855
Thomas W. Ligon	1856 " 1857
Thomas H. Hicks	1858 " 1861
Augustus W. Bradford	1862 " 1864
Thomas Swann	1865 " 1867
Oden Bowie	1868 " 1871
W. P. Whyte	1872 " 1874
James B. Groome	1875
John Lee Carroll	1876 to 1879
William T. Hamilton	1880 " 1883
Robert M. McLane	1884 " 1887
Elihu E. Jackson	1888 " 1891
Frank Brown	1892 " 1896
Lloyd Lowndes	1896 " 1900
John W. Smith	1900 " 1904
Edwin Warfield	1904 " 1908

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Charles Carroll	1st to 2d	1789 to 1793
John Henry	1st " 5th	1789 " 1797
Richard Potts	2d " 4th	1793 " 1796
John Eager Howard	4th " 7th	1796 " 1803
James Lloyd	5th " 6th	1798 " 1800
William Hindman	6th " 7th	1800 " 1803
Robert Wright	7th " 9th	1801 " 1806
Samuel Smith	8th " 13th	1803 " 1815
Philip Reed	9th " 12th	1806 " 1813
Robert Henry Goldsborough	13th " 15th	1813 " 1819
Robert G. Harper	14th	1816
Alexander C. Hanson	14th to 15th	1817 to 1819
Edward Lloyd	16th " 19th	1819 " 1826
William Pinkney	16th " 17th	1820 " 1822
Samuel Smith	17th	1822
Ezekiel F. Chambers	19th to 23d	1826 to 1834
Joseph Kent	23d " 25th	1833 " 1837
Robert Henry Goldsborough	23d " 24th	1835 " 1836
John S. Spence	24th " 26th	1835 " 1840
William D. Merrick	25th " 28th	1838 " 1845
John L. Kerr	26th " 27th	1841 " 1843
James A. Pearce	28th " 37th	1843 " 1862
Reverdy Johnson	29th " 30th	1845 " 1849
David Stewart	31st	1849
Thomas G. Pratt	31st to 34th	1850 to 1857
Anthony Kennedy	35th " 38th	1857 " 1865
Thomas H. Hicks	37th " 38th	1863 " 1865
John A. J. Creswell	39th	1865 " 1867
Reverdy Johnson	39th to 40th	1865 " 1868
William Pinckney Whyte	40th	1868 " 1869
George Vickers	40th to 42d	1868 " 1873
William T. Hamilton	41st " 43d	1869 " 1875
George R. Dennis	43d " 45th	1873 " 1879
William Pinckney Whyte	44th " 46th	1875 " 1881
James G. Groome	46th " 49th	1879 " 1885
Arthur P. Gorman	47th " 56th	1881 " 1899
Ephraim K. Wilson	49th " 52d	1885 " 1891
Charles H. Gibson	52d " 55th	1891 " 1897
George L. Wellington	55th " 57th	1897 " 1903
Louis E. McComas	56th " 58th	1899 " 1905
Arthur P. Gorman	58th " 59th	1903 " 1906
Isador Rayner	58th " ——	1905 " ——
Wm. P. Whyte	59th " ——	1906 " ——

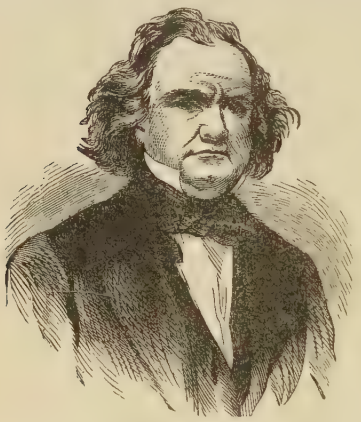
Mason, DAVID HASTINGS, journalist; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 8, 1829; studied at Yale college; was editor of the New Haven *Journal and Courier;* and during 1867–82 was on the staff of various Chicago dailies. While tariff editor of the *Inter-Ocean,* of Chicago, he wrote *A Tariff History of the United States.* He died in Chicago, Ill., June 17, 1903.

Mason, GEORGE, statesman; born in Fairfax county, Va., in 1725; was a firm patriot and able statesman. In 1769 he drew up the non-importation resolutions which Washington presented to the Virginia Assembly, and which were unanimously adopted. He also wrote a powerful tract against the claim of the British Parliament to tax the colonies without their consent. At a meeting of the inhabitants of Fairfax, July 18, 1774, he offered twenty-four resolutions reviewing the whole ground of the pending controversy; recommended a general congress; and urged the non-intercourse policy. In 1775 he was a member of the Virginia committee of safety; and in 1776 he drafted the Declaration of Rights and State constitution of Virginia, which were adopted unanimously. In 1777 he was elected to the Continental Congress, and in 1787 he was a leading member of the convention which framed the national Constitution. In that body he opposed every measure which tended to the perpetuation of slavery. Dissatisfied with the Constitution, he declined to sign it, and, in connection with Patrick Henry, led the opposition to it in the convention of Virginia. He also declined the office of United States Senator, to which he was elected. Jefferson wrote of Mason: "He was a man of the first order of wisdom, of expansive mind, profound judgment, cogent in argument, learned in the lore of our form of Constitution, and earnest for the republican change on democratic principles." He died in Fairfax county, Va., Oct. 7, 1792. A statue of Mason occupies a pedestal on Crawford's monument of Washington in Richmond, Va.

Mason, JAMES MURRAY, legislator; born on Mason's Island, Fairfax co., Va., Nov. 3, 1798; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1818; began the practice of law in 1820; served in the Virginia House of Delegates from 1826 to 1832, was a member of Congress from 1837 to 1839; and United States Senator from 1847 until expelled in July, 1861. Senator Mason was the author of the FUGITIVE

Slave Law (*q. v.*); an active leader in the disunion movement in 1860–61; and a member of the Confederate Congress. He died near Alexandria, Va., April 28, 1871.

Early in the career of the Confederate government they sent diplomatic agents to European courts who proved to be incompetent. Then the government undertook to correct the mistake by sending two of their ablest men to represent their cause at the courts of Great Britain and France respectively. These were James M.



JAMES MURRAY MASON.

Mason, of Virginia, and John Slidell, of Louisiana, who was deeply interested in the scheme for reopening the African slave-trade. These ambassadors, each accompanied by a **secretary of legation,** left Charleston Harbor on a stormy night (Oct. 12, 1861), eluded the blockading squadron, and landed in Havana, Cuba, where they were cordially greeted by the British consul and other sympathizers. There they embarked for St. Thomas on the British mail-steamer *Trent*, intending to go to England in the regular packet from the latter port. While the vessel was on her way to St. Thomas, and when off the northern coast of Cuba, she fell in with the American war-ship *San Jacinto*, Capt. Charles Wilkes (*q. v.*), then on his way home from the coast of Africa. He had touched at Havana, where he heard of the movement of the Confederate ambassadors. Satisfied that the English rule concerning neutrals and belligerents would justify him in seizing these men on the *Trent* and transferring them to his own vessel, he went out in search of her. He found her on Nov. 8, and brought her to by firing a shell across her bow. Then he sent Lieutenant Fairfax, a kinsman of Mason, on board the *Trent* to demand of the captain the delivery of the ambassadors and their secretaries to Captain Wilkes.

The officers of the *Trent* protested, and the ambassadors refused to leave the ship unless forced by physical power to do so. Lieutenant Greer and a few marines were sent to help Fairfax, who then took Mason by the shoulders and placed him in a boat belonging to the *San Jacinto*. Then the lieutenant returned to Slidell. The passengers were greatly excited. They gathered around him, some making contemptuous allusions to the lieutenant, and even crying out "Shoot him!" The daughter of Slidell slapped Fairfax in the face three times as she clung to the neck of her father. The marines were called, and Slidell and the two secretaries were compelled to go. The captive ambassadors were conveyed to Boston and lodged in Fort Warren as prisoners of state. The British government pronounced the act of Wilkes a "great outrage," though in exact accordance with their code of international law as expounded by their judges and publicists; and the British government prepared for war on the United States. It did not wait for diplomatic correspondence, but made extensive preparations for hostilities before sending a peremptory demand for the release of the prisoners. The Tory papers abused the American government without stint. While these preparations were going on, and Congress and other legislative bodies were thanking Captain Wilkes, the United States government, acting upon the wise counsel of President Lincoln, and true to its long-cherished principles concerning the sacredness of neutrality, proceeded to disavow the act of Wilkes and to release the prisoners. They were placed on board a British vessel, and went to England, where they were treated with marked coldness. The London *Times*, which had teemed with abuse of the Americans because of the arrest, now declared that the ambassadors were "worthless," and added, "England would have done as much for two negroes."

Mason, JEREMIAH, legislator; born in Lebanon, Conn., April 27, 1768; graduated at Yale College in 1788; admitted to the bar in 1791; and began practice in Westmoreland, N. H. He was Attorney-General in 1802, and from 1813 to 1817 was United States Senator. For many years he was in the New Hampshire legislature, and was the author of

STATUE OF JOHN MASON, OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

an able report on the Virginia resolutions touching the MISSOURI COMPROMISE *(q. v.)*. In 1837 he removed to Boston, where, until he was seventy years of age, he was extensively engaged in his profession; but he was little known, personally, out of New England. His mind was clear, logical, and extremely vigorous, the characteristics of which, Webster said, were "real greatness, strength, and sagacity." He died in Boston, Oct. 14, 1848.

Mason, JOHN, founder of New Hampshire; born in Lynn Regis, Norfolk, England; commanded an expedition to subdue a rebellion in the Hebrides in 1610, and went to Newfoundland as governor in 1616. He surveyed the island, made a map of it (published in 1626), and wrote a description of it. In 1617 he explored the New England coasts, and obtained from the Council of Plymouth a tract of land there in 1622. With Fernando Gorges, he procured a patent for another tract (see MAINE), and sent a colony there in 1623. In 1629 he obtained a patent for the domain which he called New Hampshire. In the same year he acquired, with Gorges, another tract, which embraced the country around Lake Champlain; and in 1631 Mason, Gorges, and others formed a company for trading with the natives of New England and to make settlements there. In 1633 Mason became a member of the council for New England and its vice-president. He was also judge of the courts of Hampshire, England, in 1665, and in October was appointed vice-admiral of New England. He died, in London, in December, 1635, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. Mason's heirs sold his rights in the province of New Hampshire in 1691 to Samuel Allan.

Mason, JOHN, Indian fighter; born in England in 1600; served as a soldier under Fairfax in the Netherlands, and was invited by that leader to join his standard in the civil war. He came to America in 1630, and was one of the first settlers of Dorchester. Captain Mason led the white and Indian troops against the Pequods near the Mystic in 1637 (see PEQUOD WAR), and was soon afterwards made major-general of the Connecticut forces, a post he held until his death in Norwich, Conn., in 1672. He was a magistrate from 1642 until 1668, and deputy-governor from 1660 to 1670. He went to Saybrook after the Pequod War at the request of the settlers, and in 1659 removed to Norwich.

Mason, JOHN YOUNG, diplomatist; born in Greenville county, Va., April 18, 1799; graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1816; admitted to the bar in 1819; member of Congress in 1831–37; appointed judge of the United States dis-

trict court of Virginia, and subsequently of the General Court of Virginia. He was Secretary of the Navy under President Tyler; Attorney-General and Secretary of the Navy under President Polk. In 1853 President Pierce appointed him United States minister to France. He died in Paris, Oct. 3, 1859.

Mason, LOWELL, composer; born in Medfield, Mass., Jan. 8, 1792; at an early age became a teacher and composer of music, and at the age of twenty years went to Savannah, Ga., where he gave instruction and led choirs and musical associations. In 1821 he published in Boston his *Handel and Haydn Collection of Church Music,* which was so successful that he returned north and settled in Boston, where, in 1827, he began the instruction of classes in vocal music. He taught juvenile classes gratuitously on the Pestalozzian system, and published many collections of music, glee-books, etc. In connection with Professors Park and Phelps, he complied a *Collection of Psalms and Hymns for Public Worship,* published in 1858. He died in Orange, N. J., Aug. 11, 1872.

Mason, RUFUS OSGOOD; born in Sullivan, N. H., Jan. 22, 1830; graduated at Dartmouth in 1854, naval surgeon 1861–64; author of *Telepathy and the Subliminal Self,* etc. He died in 1903. See HYPNOTISM, EDUCATIONAL USES OF.

Mason, STEVENS THOMSON, legislator; born in Stafford county, Va., 1760; was educated at the College of William and Mary, and at the age of twenty years held the rank of colonel in the Virginia troops. At the close of the Revolution he was a brigadier-general. In the Virginia House of Representatives he was conspicuous; also in the convention in Virginia in 1788 to consider the national Constitution. He took a conspicuous place in the Democratic party (see JAY, JOHN), and was United States Senator from 1794 until his death in Philadelphia, Pa., May 10, 1803. Mr. Mason was distinguished for oratory, and was very popular.

Mason and Dixon's Line, the disputed boundary-line between the State of Pennsylvania and the States of Maryland and Virginia—the border-line between the free and the slave States—fixed by Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, English mathematicians and surveyors employed for the purpose, between 1763 and 1767. In the debates on slavery before the admission of Missouri, John Randolph used the words "Mason and Dixon's line" as figurative of the division between the two systems of labor. The press and the politicians echoed it; and in that connection it was used until the destruction of slavery by the Civil War.

Mason and Slidell Affair. See TRENT, THE; MASON, JAMES MURRAY.

MASSACHUSETTS, STATE OF

Massachusetts, STATE OF, one of the original thirteen States of the Union; founded by English Puritans who fled from persecution (see PURITANS). Its shores were probably visited by Northmen at the beginning of the eleventh century (see NORTHMEN), and possibly Sebastian Cabot saw them (1498), and also Verrazano (1524). The shores were explored by Bartholomew Gosnold (1602), Samuel Champlain (1604), and John Smith (1614); but the first permanent European settlement was made on the shores of Cape Cod Bay by some English Non-conformists, who, calling themselves "Pilgrims," had fled from England to Holland, sojourned there a few years, formed a church at Leyden, and in 1620 came to America, where they might worship God with perfect freedom. Having made arrangements with the Plymouth Company for planting a settlement, and for funds with some London merchants, they went from Delftshaven to England, and sailed for America from Plymouth in the *Mayflower* of 180 tons' burden, on Sept. 17 (N. S.), and, after a stormy passage, arrived at Cape Cod in November. Seeking a good landing-place, the company, 101 in number — men, women, and children — did not leave the vessel until Dec. 22 (N. S.), when they landed on a rock on the shores of Cape Cod Bay, built some log-huts in the snow, and called the rude village New Plymouth. In the cabin of the *Mayflower* the men had drawn up

STATE SEAL OF MASSACHUSETTS.

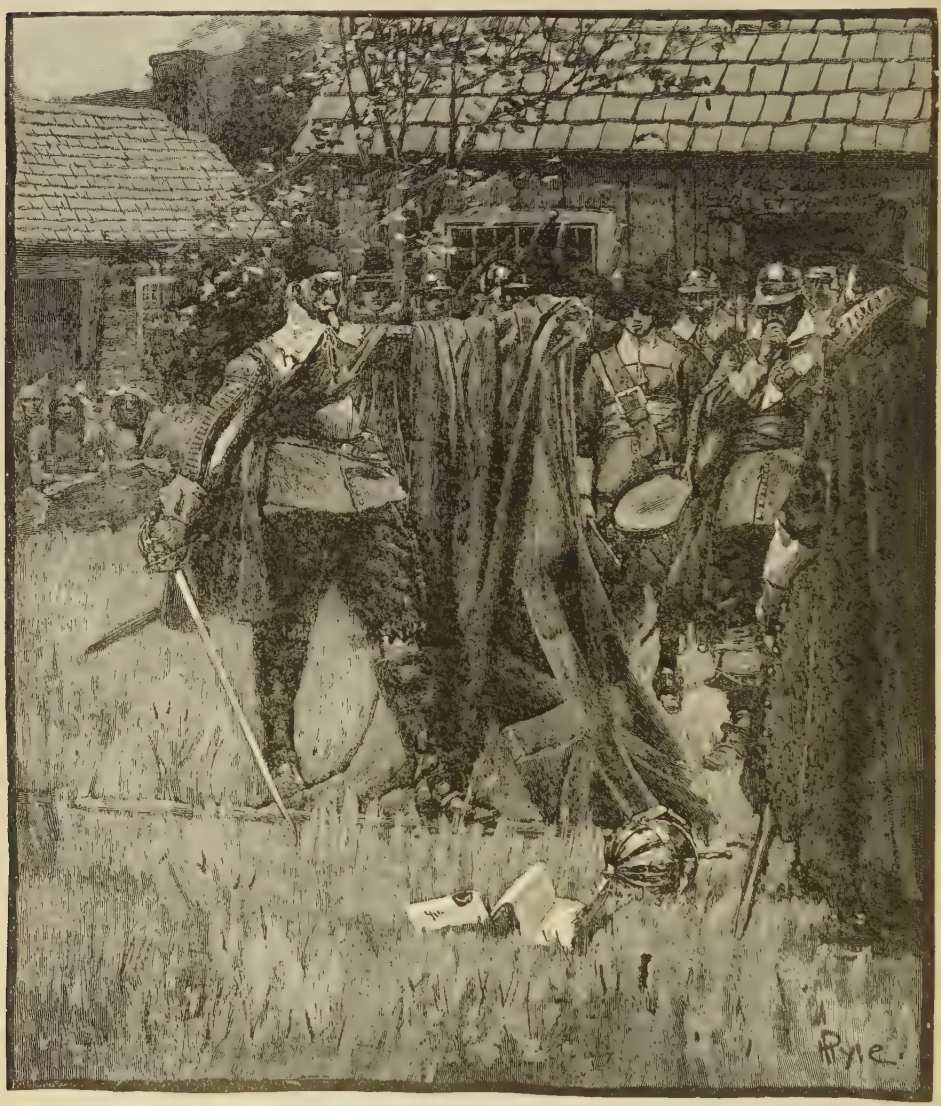
and signed a form of government — a solemn compact—by which they were to be ruled (see PILGRIMS), and chose JOHN CARVER (*q. v.*) governor for one year. Cold, exposure, and poor food caused a sickness that swept away nearly one-half their number in four months. Carver was among the victims, and WILLIAM BRADFORD (*q. v.*) was his successor. Their spiritual leader was Elder WILLIAM BREWSTER (*q. v.*). They made a treaty of friendship with MASSASOIT (*q. v.*), sachem of the surrounding Indians, and it was long maintained inviolate. In petty hostilities with other chiefs, CAPT. MILES STANDISH (*q. v.*), a valiant soldier, was very useful.

Other Puritans joined the Pilgrims, and other settlements were soon attempted; but the little colony at New Plymouth suffered much at times until 1623, when they were blessed with a bountiful harvest. The community system of labor was abandoned, and in 1627 the colonists dissolved their partnership with the London merchants, and became sole proprietors of the soil. As the Pilgrims could not obtain a patent, they quietly lived under their own simple form of government and prospered. An English company obtained a grant of territory on Massachusetts Bay and sent over JOHN ENDICOTT (*q. v.*), with 100 settlers, who seated themselves at Naumkeag, now Salem.

In March, 1629, King Charles I. gave a charter to a number of wealthy and influential Englishmen, confirming a former grant to others, to a domain in America, with whom they became associated, and superadded the power of government. It was similar to the Virginia charter (see VIRGINIA), and erected the patentees and their associates into a corporation by the

MAP OF NEW ENGLAND COAST MADE BY CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

name of the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay, in New England. The affairs of the company and the colony were to be managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and eighteen assistants, or magistrates, the latter to hold monthly courts. The more important laws of the colony were to be enacted by a General Court of Assembly of all the freemen and stockholders, to be held quarterly. The rights of Englishmen were secured to the colonists, but the management of the local government was entirely in the hands of the corporation in England. No royal negative was reserved in the enactments of the company. Nothing was said about reli-



CUTTING THE CROSS OUT OF THE ENGLISH FLAG.

gion. The company was organized under the charter by the appointment of Matthew Cradock governor, and Timothy Goffe deputy-governor—two wealthy London merchants. The executive administration of the colony was intrusted to John Endicott, assisted by twelve councillors—seven to be named by the company, two to be selected by the old planters, and these nine to select three more. The settlement was called "London's Plantation." Every stockholder who should emigrate to America at his own cost was to receive fifty acres of land for each member of his family, and the same for each indentured servant he carried with him. The charter and the government were soon transferred from England to Massachusetts, and a large emigration ensued in 1629–30.

Late in 1634, while Dudley was governor, John Endicott, incited by Roger Williams, caused the red cross of St. George to be cut out of the military standard of England used at Salem, because he regarded it as a "relic of Anti-Christ," it having been given by the pope to a former king of England as an ensign of victory. He had so worked upon the minds of many citizens of Salem that they refused to follow the standard with the cross upon it. At about that time the British government, jealous of the independent spirit manifested in Massachusetts, watched its development with great vigilance, and the enemies of the colony pointed to this mutilation of the standard as evidence of disloyalty to the crown. It was simply loyalty to bigotry. The whole aspect of the act was theological, not political; but the royalists chose to interpret it otherwise, and it was one of the reasons for tyrannical action towards the colony when orders were issued to the authorities of Massachusetts to produce their charter before the privy council in England. At a Court of Assistants at Boston complaint was made of the mutilation of the standard, for trouble with the home government was anticipated. The ensign-bearer was summoned before the court. Afterwards the assistants met at the governor's house to advise about the defacing, and it was agreed to write to England about the matter.

Endicott was, after three months' longer deliberation, called to answer for the act. The court could not agree whether all the ensigns should be laid aside, as many would not follow them with the cross visible. The commissioners of military affairs ordered all the ensigns to be put away. Nothing more was done in the matter then. Two years later there was more trouble about the colors. Henry Vane was elected governor (1636), and fifteen ships in the harbor having arrived with passengers, the seamen commemorated his election by a volley of great guns. But, the ensigns being "laid away," the fort in Boston could not acknowledge the compliment by displaying colors. The English sailors accused the colonists of treason, and the ship-masters requested the governor to spread the King's colors at the fort, because the question of their loyalty might be raised in England. The magistrates were all persuaded that the cross in the colors was idolatrous, and the governor dissimulated by pretending that he had no colors. The ship-masters offered to lend him theirs, and this was accepted as a compromise with the consciences of the authorities, they arguing that, as the fort was the King's, the colors might be displayed there at his peril.

At the request of the General Court, the Rev. John Cotton (*q. v.*) drew up the first code of laws of Massachusetts. They were taken entirely from the Old Testament. It was found that they were not adapted to a state of society so different from that of the Hebrews in the time of Moses, and Rev. Nathaniel Ward, who was familiar with the Roman as well as the Jewish laws, drew up a code which was substituted for Cotton's in 1641. The first article of this code provided that the rights of person and property vested in the citizen should be inviolate, except by express law, or, in default of that, by the "Word of God." Governor Winthrop did not approve of Mr. Ward's adaptation of Greek and Roman laws. He thought it better that the laws should be taken from the Scriptures rather than "on the authority of the wisdom and justice of those heathen commonwealths." The "Body of Liberties" compiled by Mr. Ward was really the first constitution of Massachusetts Bay.

In 1651 Roger Williams and John Clarke were appointed agents to seek in

England a confirmation of the Rhode Island charter. Before their departure, Mr. Clarke, with Mr. Crandall and Obadiah Holmes, delegates from the Baptist Church in Newport, visited an aged Baptist brother in Lynn, Mass., who was too feeble to attend public worship. On a Sunday morning they ventured to give

THE PROVINCE HOUSE, RESIDENCE OF THE ROYAL GOVERNORS OF MASSACHUSETTS.

a public exhortation at the house of the brother. For this they were arrested, and carried by force in the afternoon to hear the regular Congregational preacher (Thomas Cobbett, author of "a large, nervous, and golden discourse" against the Baptists). The next day they were sent to Boston, where Clarke was sentenced to pay a fine of $100, or be whipped. One charge against him was that he neglected to take off his hat when he was forced into the Congregational meeting-house at Lynn. In a sermon just before Clarke's trial, John Cotton declared that to deny the efficacy of infant baptism was "to overthrow all," and was "soul murder" —a capital offence. So Endicott held in passing sentence upon the prisoner. He charged Clarke with preaching to the weak and ignorant, and bade him "try and dispute with our ministers."

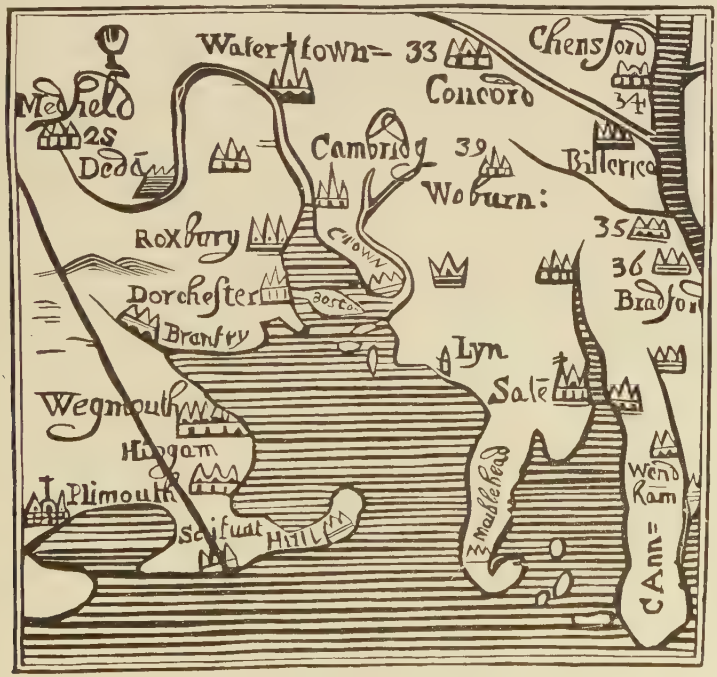
Clarke accepted the challenge, and sent word to the Massachusetts ministers that he would prove to them that the ordinance of baptism—that is, dipping in water —was to be administered only to those who gave evidence of repentance and faith; and that only such visible believers constituted the Church of Christ on the earth. The ministers evaded the trial. Some of Clarke's friends paid his fine, and he was released. Crandall, fined $25, was released at the same time; but Holmes, a recent convert to Anabaptism, and lately excommunicated, who was fined $150, had more of the martyr spirit. As he left the bar the pastor (John Wilson) struck him and cursed him because he said, "I bless God I am counted worthy to suffer for the name of Jesus." Some friends offered to pay Holmes's fine, but he declined it, and was taken to the public whipping - post, where he was scourged with a three-corded whip, with which a stout man gave him thirty stripes most vigorously, "the man spitting on his hands three times." When led away, Holmes said to the magistrates, "You have struck me with roses," and prayed the punishment might not be laid to their charge. Two sympathizing friends came up to the bleeding victim of bigotry and intolerance, and, shaking hands with him, said, "Blessed be God." They were arrested for "contempt of authority," fined 40*s.* each, and imprisoned. Holmes returned to Newport, and lived to old age.

Not long afterwards Sir Richard Saltonstall, one of the founders of the Massachusetts colony, wrote from England to Cotton and Wilson, ministers in Boston, saying: "It doth not a little grieve my spirit to hear what sad things are reported daily of your tyranny and persecution in New England, as that you fine, whip, and imprison men for their consciences. First you compel such to come into your assemblies as you know will not join you in your worship, and when they show their dislike thereof, or witness against it, then you stir up your magistrates to punish them for such as you conceive their public offences. Truly, friends, this your practice of compelling any, in matters of worship, to do that whereof they are not fully persuaded is to make them sin, for so the apostle (Rom. xiv., 23) tells us; and many are made hypocrites thereby, conforming

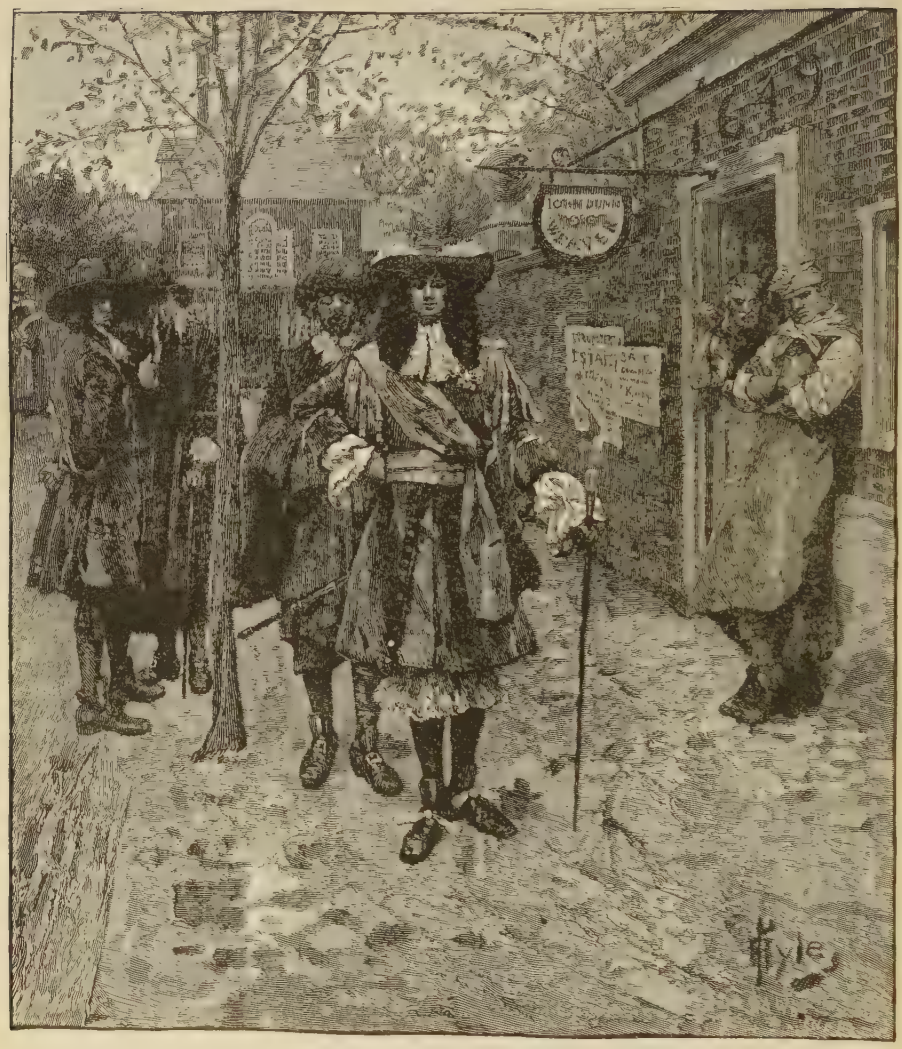
in their outward man for fear of punishment. . . . These rigid ways have laid you very low in the hearts of the saints."

King Charles I. now began to interfere with the political independence of the colony. He demanded the surrender of the charter to the crown; the order was evaded, and, by erecting fortifications and drilling troops, the colonists prepared to resist it. During the civil war the colony was quiet, but on the restoration of the Stuarts in 1660 (see CHARLES II.) the government of England claimed supreme jurisdiction in Massachusetts. A commissioner was sent to England in 1662, and obtained a confirmation of the charter and a conditional promise of amnesty for offenders during the late troubles between royalty and the people. Charles II. demanded the repeal of all laws contrary to his authority, the taking of an oath of allegiance, the administration of justice in the King's name, the complete toleration of the Church of England in Massachusetts, and a concession of the elective franchise to every man having a competent estate.

There was a diversity of sentiment in the colony respecting these demands, some acquiescing, some opposing; and in 1664 commissioners arrived in Boston to investigate the affairs of the colony. The colonial authorities published an order prohibiting any complaints to be made to the commissioners, and addressed a remonstrance to the King. The commissioners, unable to do anything, finally withdrew. The King reproved Massachusetts, and ordered the governor and others to appear before him. They refused to go, and much trouble was expected. A more serious trouble awaited them. The colony was severely scourged by KING PHILIP'S WAR (*q. v.*) in 1675–76. The Indians destroyed a dozen towns, 6,000 houses, and 600 of the inhabitants, in their homes or in the little army. Of the men, one in twenty had fallen, and of the families, one in twenty was homeless; and the cost of the



ANCIENT MAP OF MASSACHUSETTS BAY.



GOVERNOR ANDROS IN BOSTON.

war was over $500,000—enormous at that time.

The royal pretensions to rule the colony were renewed after the war, though England had not furnished a man or a farthing to carry it on, but these were spurned. In 1680 a committee of the privy council, at the suit of the heirs of Gorges, denied the right of Massachusetts to New Hampshire and Maine. Massachusetts purchased the title to the latter (see MAINE), and the former became an independent province (see NEW HAMPSHIRE). In 1684 the high court of chancery in England gave judgment in favor of the crown against the Governor and Company of Massachusetts, and the charter was declared forfeited. Joseph Dudley was appointed royal governor, the General Assembly, or Court, was dissolved, and a

new commission superseded the charter government. Edmund Andros succeeded Dudley, Dec. 20, 1686, when that tyrannical ruler and his pliant council proceeded to make laws and levy taxes without the consent of the people. The people submitted with impatience. They were relieved by the expulsion (1688) of the last Stuart king from the throne of England (see JAMES II.), and early in 1689 the men of Boston imprisoned Andros, reinstated the old government, and sent the ex-royal governor to England (see ANDROS, SIR EDMUND). In the intercolonial war between France and England in 1690 Massachusetts participated, and to pay the expenses the colony first issued paper money.

In 1692 a new charter was given to Massachusetts, by which New Plymouth was united with it. By its terms the colony of Plymouth, the provinces of Maine and Nova Scotia, as far north as the St. Lawrence River, and all the country between them, were added to the old province of Massachusetts; also the Elizabeth Islands and the islands of Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard. The governor, lieutenant-governor, and colonial secretary were appointed by the crown. The charter gave the governor the power to convene and dissolve the General Court, and a veto of all its acts. The councillors first appointed by the crown were afterwards to be annually elected by the House of Representatives and the existing council; but of the twenty-eight thus chosen the governor might reject thirteen. The advice and consent of the council were necessary to all appointments and official acts. Under this charter the theocracy which had ruled Massachusetts with rigor lost nearly all its power. Toleration was expressly secured to all religious sects, excepting the Roman Catholic. The right of suffrage, limited by the old government to church members and a few persons admitted as freemen on a minister's certificate, was now bestowed on all inhabitants possessing a freehold of the annual value of $6.66, or personal property to the amount of $133.33.

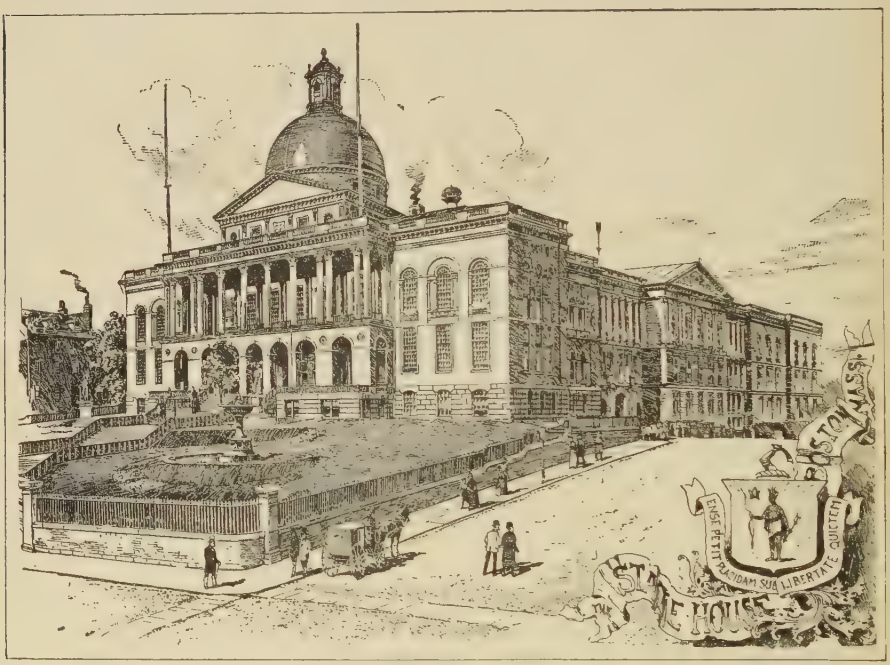
In 1692, after the receipt of the new charter, the General Court passed an act which was a declaration of the rights of the colony. Among the general privileges which it asserted, it declared that "No aid, tax, tollage, assessment, custom, loan, benevolence, or imposition whatsoever, shall be laid, assessed, imposed, or levied on any of their Majesties' subjects, or their estates, on any pretence whatsoever, but by the act and consent of the governor council, and representatives of the people assembled in General Court." About this time the Salem witchcraft delusion fearfully disturbed the colony for six months. The province was smitten by French and Indian invaders in 1703–4, and war was waged with the Indians in 1722 and 1725.

The controversies carried on through pamphlets in discussions of the subjects of paper money, the small-pox, and the quarrels between the governor (Shute) and the representatives, had exhibited so much freedom that James Franklin was encouraged to set up a newspaper at Boston, called the *New England Courant*. The first number was dated Aug. 6, 1721. It was designed as a medium of public discussion, to take the place of pamphlets, and was the first newspaper in America that aspired to this eminence. Its freedom of speech made the authorities uneasy; and one of its articles, in relation to the fitting-out of a vessel to cruise against pirates, was construed as contempt of the General Court, for which Franklin was imprisoned. His brother Benjamin, then a youth of sixteen, published in it some mild essays on religious hypocrisy, which gave greater offence. It was charged that the paper had a "tendency to mock religion"; that it profanely abused the Holy Scriptures; injuriously reflected upon the ministers of the Gospel and "on his Majesty's government," and disturbed the peace and good order of the province. James Franklin was forbidden to publish a newspaper, pamphlet, or anything else unless it should be approved and licensed by the colonial secretary. This order was evaded by the *Courant* being published in the name of his brother Benjamin, but the caution necessary to be used made contributors shy. They gradually ceased to write, and the paper, losing interest, finally perished for lack of support. Such was the fate of the first nominally free press in America.

The colony was involved in war with its French neighbors in 1744, in consequence

of a war between France and England. In that war Massachusetts contributed largely in men and means to the capture of Louisburg (1745), and in attempts to conquer Canada. She also bore her part in the French and Indian War; and in the opposition to the Stamp Act and other schemes of the British Parliament for taxing the English-American colonists, Massachusetts took a leading part.

Recent acts of Parliament for taxing the Americans caused the Massachusetts



THE STATE-HOUSE, BOSTON, MASS.

Assembly, in January, 1768, to send to the King a petition which combined, temperately, the spirit of liberty and of loyalty. In it was set forth a brief history of the colony of Massachusetts; the franchise guaranteed by their charter; expressed the happiness of the colonists while in the enjoyment of these chartered privileges; spoke of the obedience to acts of Parliament not inconsistent with these chartered rights, and said: "It is with the deepest concern that your humble suppliants would represent to your Majesty that your Parliament, the rectitude of whose intentions is never to be questioned, has thought proper to pass divers acts imposing taxes on your subjects in America, with the sole and express purpose of raising a revenue." "If your Majesty's subjects here shall be deprived of the honor and privilege of voluntarily contributing their aid to your Majesty," they continued, "in supporting your government and authority in the province, and defending and securing your rights and territories in America, which they have always hitherto done with the greatest cheerfulness, their liberties would be in danger." They declared that if Parliament intended to lay taxes upon them without their consent, the people "must regret their unhappy fate in having only the name left of free subjects." "With all humility," they continued, "we conceive that a representation of this province in Parliament, considering these local circumstances, is utterly impracticable. Your Majesty has heretofore been gra-

ciously pleased to order your requisitions to be laid before the representatives of the people in the General Assembly, who never failed to afford the necessary aid to the extent of their ability, and sometimes beyond it; and it would be ever grievous to your Majesty's faithful subjects to be called upon in a way that should appear to them to imply a distrust of their most ready and willing compliance." They closed by humbly asking the King to consider their situation and to afford them relief from the oppression of the Parliament. With this petition went to England letters of leading statesmen, urging the rights of the province.

The General Court which met Dec. 30, 1767, having appointed a large committee to consider the state of the province, adopted (Feb. 11, 1768) a circular letter, which was addressed to the speakers of the various colonial assemblies, inviting co-operation and mutual consultation concerning the defence of colonial rights. This letter embodied the sentiments of the petition to the King above mentioned. It gave great offence to the ministry. When it reached them, Lord Hillsborough, secretary of the state for the colonies, sent instructions to the governor (Bernard) to call upon the Assembly to rescind the letter, and, in the event of non-compliance, to dissolve that body. It was then the most numerous legislature in America, consisting of 109 members. Instead of complying with the governor's demand, they made the instructions of Hillsborough a fresh cause of complaint against the ministry. "When Lord Hillsborough knows," said Otis in the Assembly, "that we will not rescind *our* acts, he should apply to Parliament to rescind theirs. Let Britons rescind these measures, or they are lost forever." The House refused to rescind by a vote of 92 to 17. In a letter to the governor notifying him of their non-compliance, the Assembly said, "If the votes of this House are to be controlled by the directions of a minister, we have left us but a vain semblance of liberty." The governor proceeded to dissolve the Assembly; but before that was accomplished they had prepared a series of accusations against him and a petition to the King to remove him. The answers to the circular letter from other assemblies glowed with sympathy and assurances of co-operation. When it was known that British troops had been ordered to Boston, a town-meeting was held and a request sent to Governor Bernard to convene the Provincial Assembly. He refused, and a convention of delegates from all the towns in the province was provided for. Delegates from more than 100 towns met, Sept. 22, at Boston, ostensibly "in consequence of prevailing apprehensions of a war with France." This was a mere pretext. They ordered all persons not already in possession of fire-arms to procure them at once; and they appointed a day of fasting and prayer to be observed by all Congregational societies. The convention petitioned the governor to summon a general court. He refused to receive the petition, and denounced the convention as treasonable. They proceeded cautiously. All pretensions to political authority were expressly disclaimed. They prepared and adopted a petition to the King, and a letter to De Berdt, agent for the provinces in England, charging him to defend the colony against accusations of sedition or a rebellious spirit. Such was the beginning of the system of conventions which, in a few years, assumed the whole political authority of the colonies. The convention adjourned after a four days' session, and the day after the adjournment troops from Halifax arrived.

On March 5, 1774, John Hancock and Samuel Adams spoke to a great meeting of citizens in Faneuil Hall. The former said: "Permit me to suggest a general congress of deputies from the several Houses of Assembly on the continent as the most effectual method of establishing a union for the security of our rights and liberties." Samuel Adams said: "It will be in vain for any to expect that the people of this country will now be contented with a partial and temporary relief, or that they will be amused by Court promises while they see not the least relaxation of grievances. By means of a brisk correspondence among the several towns in this province they have wonderfully animated and enlightened each other. They are united in sentiments, and their opposition to unconstitutional measures of government is become systematical. Colony begins to communicate freely with colony.

There is a common affection among them; and shortly the whole continent will be as united in sentiment and in their measures of opposition to tyranny as the inhabitants of this province. Their old good-will and affection for the parent country are not totally lost; if she returns to her former moderation and good-humor, their affection will revive. They wish for nothing more than a permanent union with her upon the condition of equal liberty. This is all they have been contending for; and nothing short of this will, or ought to, satisfy them." This was the ultimatum of Massachusetts.

An act for remodelling the government of Massachusetts was put in force on Aug. 1, 1774, and under it Governor Gage appointed a council by writ of mandamus. Most of those appointed accepted the office and were sworn in. They became at once objects of bitter public odium. The new government was denounced vehemently, and in some parts of the province with violence. The "mandamus councillors" were treated as enemies of their country by the patriots. In Boston, juries refused to serve, lest by consenting to act they should recognize the authority of the new government. It was not long before most of the "mandamus councillors" were compelled to take shelter under a resignation to escape popular resentment.

At the close of 1774, political power in Massachusetts was widely distributed, so that it was felt in every nerve of the body politic. There was a Provincial Congress having the general and supreme direction of public affairs. The efforts of this body were zealously seconded in every town by a committee of safety, vested with general executive powers, a committee of correspondence, and a committee of inspection. The duty of the latter was to look after and enforce the observance of the requirements of the AMERICAN ASSOCIATION (*q. v.*).

The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts wrote to the Continental Congress, May 16, 1775, setting forth the difficulties they experienced for the want of a regular government, since the act of Parliament that was intended to subvert their charter, and asking for explicit advice in the matter. The Congress resolved (June 9) that no obedience was due from the inhabitants of Massachusetts to the obnoxious act of Parliament, nor to any of the crown officers acting under it; that, as there was no council, and as Governor Gage was actually carrying on war against the people, they recommended an election of representatives to an assembly that should appoint councillors, and that this body or the councillors should exercise the powers of government until a governor should be appointed who would consent to govern the colony according to the charter. This was done. James Warren, president of the Provincial Congress, was authorized to issue writs for an election. The summons was readily obeyed. A full house convened on July 20, and Warren was chosen speaker. A council was elected, and the two branches proceeded to legislation, under the charter.

On May 1, 1776, the General Court of Massachusetts passed "an act for establishing the Stile of Commissions which shall hereafter be Issued and for Altering the Stile of writs, Processes, and all Law proceedings within this colony, and for directing *pene* Recognizances to the Use of this Government shall for the future be taken and prosecuted." The act went on to say that, "Whereas, the Petitions of the United Colonies to the King had been rejected and treated with scorn and contempt, and the evident design of the government was to reduce the colonies to a state of servile subjection," it was therefore decreed that, "on and after the first day of June next ensuing, all Civil Commissions, Writs, and Precepts for convening the General Court or Assembly" should thereafter be made out "in the name and Stile of the Government and People of the Massachusetts Bay in New England." Also, all the officers of the colony, civil and military, should receive their authority from the same source. This placed the supreme authority of Massachusetts, *de facto* and *de jure*, in the chosen representatives of the people. It was an absolute declaration of independence.

The doctrine of State supremacy had a strong hold upon the political opinions of New England, and particularly of Massachusetts, and it was restless under the assumption of supreme power by the na-

tional government in the War of 1812–15. In his message to the legislature, May 20, 1813, Governor Strong defended the right of free discussion of the great question of the day—peace or war with Great Britain. The peace party powerfully influenced public opinion in Massachusetts, and, following the message of the governor, the legislature agreed to a remonstrance, in which they denounced the perseverance in war, and declared that, for aught that appeared, the questions at issue might be adjusted by peaceful negotiations.

The politicians of the State were chiefly instrumental in getting up the HARTFORD CONVENTION (*q. v.*), and George Cabot, of Massachusetts, was its president. In 1820 the District of Maine was separated from Massachusetts, and admitted into the Union as a State. During the Civil War Massachusetts furnished to the National army and navy 159,165 men, and the losses were 3,749 killed in battle, 9,086 who died from wounds or disease, 15,645 discharged for disability contracted in the service, and 5,866 not accounted for. The State expended on account of the war $30,162,200. In 1890 the population was 2,238,943; in 1900, 2,805,346. See ADAMS, SAMUEL (*Protest against Taxation*); UNITED STATES, MASSACHUSETTS, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COLONIES.

PLYMOUTH COLONY, ELECTED.

Name.	Term.
John Carver	1620 to 1621
William Bradford	1621 " 1633
Edward Winslow	1633 " 1634
Thomas Prince	1634 " 1635
William Bradford	1635 " 1636
Edward Winslow	1636 " 1637
William Bradford	1637 " 1638
Thomas Prince	1638 " 1639
William Bradford	1639 " 1644
Edward Winslow	1644 " 1645
William Bradford	1645 " 1657
Thomas Prince	1657 " 1673
Josiah Winslow	1673 " 1681
Thomas Hinkley	1681 " 1686
Sir Edmund Andros, governor-general	1686 " 1689
Thomas Hinkley	1689 " 1692

MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONY.

Name.	Term.
John Endicott (acting)	1629 to 1630
Matthew Cradock (did not serve)	
John Winthrop	1630 " 1634
Thomas Dudley	1634 " 1635
John Haynes	1635 " 1636
Henry Vane	1636 " 1637
John Winthrop	1637 " 1640
Thomas Dudley	1640 " 1641
Richard Bellingham	1641 " 1642
John Winthrop	1642 " 1644

GOVERNORS OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COLONIES—*Continued.*

MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONY.

Name.	Term.
John Endicott	1644 to 1645
Thomas Dudley	1645 " 1646
John Winthrop	1646 " 1649
John Endicott	1649 " 1650
Thomas Dudley	1650 " 1651
John Endicott	1651 " 1654
Richard Bellingham	1654 " 1655
John Endicott	1655 " 1665
Richard Bellingham	1665 " 1673
John Leverett	1673 " 1679
Simon Bradstreet	1679 " 1684
Joseph Dudley, president	1684 " 1686
Sir Edmund Andros, governor-general	1686 " 1689
Thomas Danforth (acting)	1689 " 1692

GOVERNORS OF MASSACHUSETTS APPOINTED BY THE KING UNDER THE SECOND CHARTER.

Name.	Term.
Sir William Phipps	1692 to 1694
William Stoughton	1694 " 1699
Richard Coote, Earl of Bellamont	1699 " 1700
William Stoughton	1700 " 1701
The Council	1701 " 1702
Joseph Dudley	1702 " 1715
The Council	Feb. to March, 1715
Joseph Dudley	March to Nov., 1715
William Tailer	1715 to 1716
Samuel Shute	1716 " 1723
William Dummer	1723 " 1728
William Burnet	July, 1728, to Sept., 1729
William Dummer	1729 to June, 1730
William Tailer	June to Aug., 1730
Jonathan Belcher	1730 to 1741
William Shirley	1741 " 1749
Spencer Phipps	1749 " 1753
William Shirley	1753 " 1756
Spencer Phipps	1756 " 1757
The Council	April to Aug., 1757
Thomas Pownall	1757 to 1760
Thomas Hutchinson	June to Aug., 1760
Sir Francis Bernard	1760 to 1769
Thomas Hutchinson	1769 " 1771
" "	1771 " 1774
The Council	1774 " 1780

GOVERNORS UNDER THE STATE CONSTITUTION.

Name.	Party.	Term.
John Hancock	.....	1780 to 1785
James Bowdoin	.....	1785 " 1787
John Hancock	.....	1787 to Oct., 1793
Samuel Adams	.....	1793 to 1794
" "	.....	1794 " 1797
Increase Sumner	.....	1797 to June, 1799
Moses Gill	.....	1799 to 1800
Caleb Strong	Federal.	1800 " 1807
John Brooks	Dem. Rep.	1807 to Dec., 1808
James Sullivan	"	1808 to 1809
Levi Lincoln	"	1809 " 1810
Christopher Gore	Federal.	1810 " 1812
Elbridge Gerry	Dem. Rep.	1812 " 1816
Caleb Strong	Federal.	1816 " 1823
John Brooks	"	1823 to Feb., 1825
William Eustis	Dem. Rep.	Feb. to July, 1825
Marcus Morton	"	1825 to 1834
Levi Lincoln	Democrat.	1834 to March, 1835
John Davis	Whig.	March, 1835, to 1836
Samuel T. Armstrong	"	1836 to 1840
Edward Everett	"	1840 " 1841
Marcus Morton	Democrat.	1841 " 1843
John Davis	Whig.	1843 " 1844
Marcus Morton	Democrat.	1844 " 1851
George N. Briggs	Whig.	1851 " 1853
George S. Boutwell	Dem. & F. S.	1853 " 1854
John H. Clifford	Whig.	1854 " 1855
Emory Washburn	"	1855 " 1858
Henry J. Gardner	Republican.	1858 " 1861
Nathaniel P. Banks	"	

GOVERNORS UNDER THE STATE CONSTITUTION—*Continued.*

Name.	Party.	Term.
John A. Andrews	Republican.	1861 to 1866
Alexander H. Bullock	"	1866 " 1869
William Claflin	"	1869 " 1872
William B. Washburn	"	1872 to May, 1874
Thomas Talbot	"	May to Dec., 1874
William Gaston	Democrat.	1875 to 1876
Alexander H. Rice	Republican.	1876 " 1879
Thomas Talbot	"	1879 " 1880
John D. Long	"	1880 " 1883
Benjamin F. Butler	Dem. & Ind.	1883 " 1884
George D. Robinson	Republican.	1884 " 1887
Oliver Ames	"	1887 " 1890
John Q. A. Brackett	"	1890 " 1891
William E. Russell	Democrat.	1891 " 1892
Fred. T. Greenhalge	Republican.	1894 " 1897
Roger Wolcott	"	1897 " 1900
W. Murray Crane	"	1900 " 1903
John L. Bates	"	1903 " 1905
William L. Douglas	Democrat.	1905 " 1907
Curtis Guild, Jr.	Republican.	1907 " 1909

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Tristram Dalton	1st	1789 to 1791
Caleb Strong	1st to 4th	1789 " 1796
George Cabot	2d " 4th	1791 " 1796
Benjamin Goodhue	4th " 6th	1796 " 1800
Theodore Sedgwick	4th " 5th	1796 " 1798
Samuel Dexter	6th	1799 " 1800
Dwight Foster	6th to 7th	1800 " 1803
Jonathan Mason	6th " 7th	1800 " 1803
John Quincy Adams	8th " 10th	1803 " 1808
Timothy Pickering	8th " 11th	1803 " 1811
James Lloyd, Jr.	10th " 12th	1808 " 1813
Joseph B. Varnum	12th " 14th	1811 " 1817
Christopher Gore	13th " 14th	1813 " 1816
Eli P. Ashmun	14th " 15th	1816 " 1818
Prentiss Mellen	15th " 16th	1818 " 1820
Harrison Gray Otis	15th " 17th	1817 " 1822
Elijah H. Mills	16th " 19th	1820 " 1827
James Lloyd	17th " 19th	1822 " 1826
Nathaniel Silsbee	19th " 23d	1826 " 1835
Daniel Webster	20th " 26th	1827 " 1841
John Davis	24th " 26th	1835 " 1840
Rufus Choate	26th " 28th	1841 " 1845
Isaac C. Bates	26th " 28th	1841 " 1845
Daniel Webster	29th " 31st	1845 " 1850
John Davis	29th " 32d	1845 " 1853
Robert C. Winthrop	31st	1850
Robert Rantoul, Jr.	31st	1851
Charles Sumner	32d to 43d	1851 to 1874
Edward Everett	33d	1853 " 1854
Julius Rockwell	33d	1854
Henry Wilson	33d to 42d	1855 to 1873
George S. Boutwell	43d " 44th	1873 " 1877
William B. Washburn	43d	1874
Henry L. Dawes	44th to 52d	1875 to 1893
George F. Hoar	45th " 58th	1877 " 1904
Henry Cabot Lodge	53d " ——	1893 " ——
Winthrop M. Crane	58th " ——	1904 " ——

Massasoit, king of the Wampanoag Indians; born in the present limits of Massachusetts about 1580. His domain extended from Cape Cod to Narraganset Bay. At one time his tribe numbered 30,000 souls, but just before the arrival of the *Mayflower* they had almost been swept from the face of the earth by a malignant disease, which left only 300 persons alive. On March 15, 1621, Massasoit appeared at New Plymouth with sixty of his followers, armed and painted, prepared for peace or war. Edward Winslow had been sent with Squanto (see NEW PLYMOUTH) to meet him with presents from the governor, while Captain Standish, with several musketeers, remained a little behind. Leaving Winslow behind as a hostage, Massasoit approached with twenty armed warriors, and met Standish at a dividing brook. The dusky people were taken to a building where a rug and cushions were prepared for the king and his courtiers, and there, sitting in state, he received Governor Carver, who came with a braying trumpet and beaten drum. Squanto acted as interpreter. A treaty of peace and amity was concluded, which was never broken by either party while Massasoit lived. The old sachem sent messengers to other tribes, inviting them to come and make peace with the white people.

In the summer of 1621, Governor Bradford sent two envoys (Winslow and Hopkins) to Massasoit, at Pokanoket, near Narraganset Bay, 40 miles from Plymouth. They were kindly received by the king, who renewed the covenant with the English. When he had taken the ambassadors into his dwelling, heard their message, and received presents from them, he put on the horseman's scarlet coat which they had given him, and a chain about his neck, which made his people "proud to behold their king so bravely attired." Having given a friendly answer to their message, he addressed his people who had gathered around him, saying, "Am not I Massasoit, commander of the country around you? Is not such a town mine, and the people of it? Will you not bring your skins to the English?" After this manner he named at least thirty places, and all gave their assent and applause. At the close of his speech he lighted tobacco for the envoys, and proceeded to discourse about England, declaring that he was "King James's man," and expressing his wonder how the King could live without a wife (for the Queen was then dead). Massasoit had just returned home, and had no food to offer the envoys, who craved rest by sleep. "He laid us," wrote one of them, "on a bed with himself and his

wife—they at the one end and we at the other; it being only planks laid a foot from the ground, and a thin mat upon them. Two more of his chief men, for want of room, pressed by and upon us, so that we were more wearied of our lodging than of our journey."

In 1623, when Massasoit was very sick, Winslow again visited him, and, in gratitude for the attention of the Englishman, the sachem revealed a plot of the Indians to destroy the white people. Thirteen years later, when Roger Williams, banished from Massachusetts, was making his way towards Narraganset Bay, he was kindly entertained by Massasoit for several weeks. A contemporary writer says the Wampanoag king was "a portly man in his best years; grave of countenance and spare of speech." He left two sons.

MASSASOIT'S LODGE.

Matanzas, a seaport of Cuba, on the bay of Matanzas, about 50 miles east of Havana. It was one of the first places to be blockaded by the United States at the beginning of the war with Spain. Here, on April 27, 1898, a reconnoissance was ordered in force for the purpose of locating the Spanish batteries, ascertaining their number, and preventing the completion of additional fortifications. The *Puritan*, *Cincinnati*, and *New York* ran into the bay and opened fire upon a new earthwork, which was struck by the third shot. The Spaniards replied without hitting a ship. The Americans fired eighty-six shots at ranges varying from 4,000 to 11,000 yards, and the Spaniards fired twelve. There were no casualties on the American side, and the Spanish reported that the only damage done them was the death of a mule. During the action a Cuban force approached to attack the city, but were driven off with a loss of twenty men.

Matchett, Charles Horatio, socialist; born in Needham, Mass., May 15, 1843; has been an active member of the Knights of Labor and of the Socialist Labor party. He has been the candidate of his party for governor of New York, Vice-President of the United States (1892), and President of the United States (1896).

Mather, Cotton, clergyman; born in Boston, Feb. 12, 1663; was one of the most notable of the early New England divines. He graduated at Harvard in 1678, was employed several years in teaching, and was ordained a minister in May, 1684, as colleague of his father, Dr. Increase Mather. The doctrine of special providence he carried to excess. He was credulous and superstitious, and believed he was doing God service by witch-hunting. His *Wonders of the Invisible World* (1692) gives an account of the trials of witchcraft. In 1700 he published *More Wonders*, and seems never to have relinquished his belief in witches and witchcraft. Aside from this peculiarity, he was a most sincere, earnest, indefatigable

Christian worker, engaging in every good work; and he was the first to employ the press extensively in this country in the dissemination of tracts treating of temperance, religion, and social morals. He preached and wrote for sailors, Indians,

COTTON MATHER.

and negroes. The number of his published works issued between 1686 and 1727 was 382. He died in Boston, Feb. 13, 1728.

Mather, INCREASE, clergyman; born in Dorchester, Mass., June 21, 1639; was educated at Harvard and Dublin universities, and returned to Boston in 1661. He was president of Harvard University from 1685 to 1701. He was an energetic and patriotic public man; was sent to England to obtain redress of grievances; and returned in 1692 with a new charter, and invested with the power to nominate a governor, lieutenant-governor, and council for Massachusetts. Dr. Mather opposed the violent measures promoted by his son, COTTON, against persons accused of witchcraft. He wrote a *History of the War with the Indians* and many other books and pamphlets. He died in Boston, Aug. 23, 1723.

Mather, RICHARD, clergyman; born in England in 1596; emigrated to America in 1635; pastor of the Dorchester Church, 1636–69. He drew up the celebrated Cambridge Platform of Discipline. He died in Dorchester, Mass., April 22, 1669.

Mather, SAMUEL, clergyman; born in Boston, Mass., Oct. 30, 1705; graduated at Harvard College in 1723; became colleague pastor of the Old North Church, Boston. Later he left that church with a number of its members and founded a separate congregation in the same city. His publications include *Life of Cotton Mather; Apology for the Liberties of the Churches in New England; America Known to the Ancients,* etc. He died in Boston, Mass., June 27, 1785.

Matlack, TIMOTHY, patriot; born in Haddonfield, N. J., in 1730; was a member of the Society of Friends, or "Fighting Quakers," as the members of the society were called who took an active part in the Revolutionary War, like General Mifflin. Matlack was most active in every patriotic movement from the time of the Stamp Act until the end of the war, serving in the councils of the inchoate nation and as colonel of a Pennsylvania battalion of troops. He was in the civil service of Pennsylvania after the war, and in all places was distinguished for thorough uprightness. He died near Holmesburg, Pa., April 15, 1829.

Matteson, TOMPKINS HARRISON, artist; born in Peterboro, N. Y., May 9, 1813; studied art from boyhood; became an associate of the National Academy of Design in New York City in 1847. His paintings include *Spirit of '76; The First Sabbath of the Pilgrims; Examination of a Witch; Perils of the Early Colonists; Eliot Preaching to the Indians; First Prayer in Congress.* He died in Sherbourne, N. Y., Feb. 2, 1884.

Matthews, EDWARD, military officer; born in England in 1729. In 1746 he was an ensign in the Coldstream Guards, and before he came to America, in 1776, was a colonel and aide-de-camp to the King. He commanded a brigade of the Guards, with the rank of brigadier-general, in the attack on Fort Washington. In May, 1779, General Clinton sent 2,000 men from New York, under General Matthews, to plunder the coast of Virginia. He entered the Elizabeth River on transports, escorted by a squadron of armed vessels under Sir George Collier, on May 9. They plundered and spread desolation on both sides of the river to Norfolk. They seized that city, then rising from its ashes and enjoying a considerable trade, and also Portsmouth, op-

posite. These were the chief places of deposit of Virginia agricultural productions, especially tobacco. They captured and burned not less than 130 merchant vessels in the James and Elizabeth rivers, an unfinished Continental frigate on the stocks at Portsmouth, and eight ships-of-war on the stocks at Gosport, a short distance above Portsmouth, where the Virginians had established a navy-yard. So sudden and powerful was the attack, that very little resistance was made by Fort Nelson, below Portsmouth, or by the Virginia militia. Matthews carried away or destroyed a vast amount of tobacco and other property, estimated, in the aggregate, at $2,000,000. Afterwards he assisted in the capture of Verplanck's and Stony Point. Appointed major-general, he was stationed at or near New York, and returned, to England in 1780; was commander-in-chief of the forces in the West Indies in 1782, and the next year was governor of Grenada and the Caribbean Islands. In 1797 he became a general. He died in Hants, England, Dec. 26, 1805.

Matthews, GEORGE, military officer; born in Augusta county, Va., in 1739; led a company in the battle of Point Pleasant, and was colonel of the 9th Virginia Regiment in the Revolutionary War. Made a prisoner at the battle of Germantown, he was a captive in a prison-ship until exchanged, late in 1781, when he joined Greene's army with his regiment. After the war he settled in Georgia, and was governor of the State from 1793 to 1796. From 1789 to 1791 he was a member of Congress. He was afterwards brigadier-general of the Georgia militia, with which he was active in taking possession of Florida, by order of the President (see FLORIDA), and the capture of AMELIA ISLAND (*q. v.*). He died in Augusta, Ga., Aug. 30, 1812.

Matthews, JAMES BRANDER, author; born in New Orleans, La., Feb. 21, 1852; graduated at Columbia University in 1871; admitted to the bar in New York in 1873, but never practised; and became Professor of Literature in Columbia University in 1892. He had devoted much time to the study of the stage, and among his plays are *Margery's Lovers*, a comedy; and *This Picture and That*, a comedy. He is a frequent contributor to periodicals, and is author of *The Theatres of France; French Dramatists of the Nineteenth Century; Secret of the Sea and Other Stories; Pen and Ink; A Family Tree and Other Stories; Introduction to the Study of American Literature; Tales of Fantasy and Fact; Aspect of Fiction; The Dream-Gown of the Japanese Ambassador; His Father's Son*, etc. Mr. Matthews was one of the founders of the Authors' Club, and one of the organizers of the American Copyright League and the Dunlap Society.

Matthews, STANLEY, jurist; born in Cincinnati, O., July 21, 1824; graduated at Kenyon College in 1840; admitted to the bar of Tennessee in 1845; appointed United States attorney for the Southern District of Ohio in 1858; commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the 23d Ohio Regiment in March, 1861; promoted colonel of the 57th Ohio in October, 1861; elected judge of the Superior Court of Cincinnati in 1873; United States Senator in 1876; appointed justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1881. He died in Washington, D. C., March 22, 1889.

Maubila, BATTLE OF. At Choctaw Bluff, in Clarke county, Ala., about 25 miles above the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, was a strong Indian town, the capital of Tuscaloosa, the head of the Mobilian tribes. Tuscaloosa was gigantic in stature, and was called the Black Warrior. De Soto had led his marauders through the beautiful Coosa country, and had, as usual, requited kind treatment by treachery and cruelty. He made captive the Coosa ruler, and carried off men, women, and children in chains as slaves. Arriving on the borders of Tuscaloosa's domain, at the great town of Tallase, he there released the Coosa chief, and found the Black Warrior at his temporary residence. He was seated on a commanding eminence, with beautiful mats under his feet, and surrounded by numerous attendants. Forty years of age, with a handsome face and grave aspect, a head taller than any of his warriors, and lord of many tribes, he was reverenced by his people and feared by all his neighbors, and his influence was felt from the Alabama to the Mississippi River. He received De Soto with haughty courtesy. When a pack-horse was brought, and Tus-

caloosa was requested to mount and ride by the side of De Soto, it was evident to him that he was really a prisoner of the Spaniard, after the manner of other caciques who had been held as hostages. They crossed the Alabama River a little below the site of Selma, and moved on in the direction of the sea.

De Soto discovered signs which made him uneasy. Tuscaloosa was in close and continual consultation with his principal followers, and was constantly sending runners ahead to his capital with messages, telling De Soto that he was preparing for their honorable reception there. De Soto did not believe him, and took measures against treachery. The Black Warrior and the Spanish leader rode side by side into the Mobilian capital, a large, high-palisaded, and walled town, called Maubila. They were received in a great square with songs, the music of flutes, and the dancing of Indian girls. There Tuscaloosa requested not to be held as a hostage any longer. De Soto hesitated, when the cacique, with proud and haughty step, entered a house. When invited to return, he refused, saying, "If your chief knows what is best for him, he will immediately take his troops out of my country." This was followed by a revelation that 10,000 Indian warriors were in the houses, with a vast amount of weapons; that the old women and children had been sent to the forests, and that the Indians were talking about the proper hour to fall upon the Spaniards. A greater part of De Soto's army was lagging behind at that perilous moment in fancied security. To postpone attack until his army should come up, De Soto approached Tuscaloosa with smiles and kind words. The cacique turned haughtily away, when a chief came out of a house, and denounced the Spaniards as robbers and murderers. Gallegos, one of De Soto's most powerful warriors, angered by his words, cleft the speaker with his heavy sword from his head to his loins. The fury of the people was aroused. They swarmed from the houses, and by force of numbers pushed the invaders out of the walled town into the plain, releasing the Indian captives, and making them fight their late masters. Five Spaniards were killed and many wounded in that first encounter.

De Soto himself was wounded, but he fought on desperately. At the head of his cavalry, he charged upon the Indians, and drove them back into their town. They rushed to their wall-towers, and hurled showers of stones and clouds of arrows upon their assailants, which drove them back. The Indians rushed out with heavy clubs, and there was a fierce hand-to-hand fight. Hearing the sounds of battle, De Soto's laggards hurried forward, and with these fresh troops the Indians were driven back into their town, followed by the invaders. A dreadful carnage ensued. The Indians fought with all the desperation of patriots. Young women, in large numbers, fought side by side with the warriors, and their blood flowed as freely. At length De Soto, at the head of his cavalry, made a furious charge into the town, with a shout of, "Our Lady and Santiago!" and made fearful lanes in the ranks of fighting men and women. The houses were now fired, and the combatants were shrouded in blinding smoke. As the sun went down, the sights and sounds of the slaughter were dreadful. When night fell the contest was over. It had raged nine hours. Maubila was a smoking ruin, and its inhabitants had perished. It was estimated that 11,000 native Alabamians had fallen, and De Soto lost eighty-two of his men, some of them the flower of Spanish chivalry. It is believed that Tuscaloosa remained in his house and perished in the flames. See De Soto.

Mauduit, Israel, political writer; born in Exeter, England, in 1708; was a prosperous London merchant; acting agent of the province of Massachusetts in England in 1763–64, and wrote much in praise of the American cause during the Revolutionary War. He died June 16, 1787.

Mauduit Duplessis, Thomas Antoine, Chevalier de, military officer; born in Hennebon, France, Sept. 12, 1752. When twelve years of age he ran away from home, visited the battle-fields of Marathon and Thermopylæ, and made plans of these battles with his own hand. He became an artillerist, and served in the Continental army of America, first as volunteer aide to General Knox. He became a lieutenant-colonel, and behaved with skill and bravery at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, Fort Mercer, and Monmouth.

In 1781 he distinguished himself at the siege of Yorktown. After the war he was stationed at Santo Domingo, where he perished by the hands of the revolutionists, March 4, 1791.

Maumee Indians. See MIAMI INDIANS.

Maumee Rapids, or Fallen Timbers, BATTLE OF. In northern Ohio, Wayne completely routed 2,000 Indians, on Aug. 20, 1794. The Americans lost thirty-three killed and 100 wounded. The battle ended the Indian war in the Northwest. See FALLEN TIMBERS.

Maurepas, JEAN FRÉDÉRIC PHÉLYPEAUX, COUNT DE, statesman; born in Versailles, France, July 9, 1701; was minister of state in 1738, and one of the ablest statesmen France ever produced; but because of an epigram on the mistress of Louis XV.—Madame d'Etoiles—whom the monarch had just created Marquise de Pompadour, he was removed from office in 1745. He was recalled in 1774, on the accession of Louis XVI., when he restored the exiled Parliament, and began a system of reform. He was instrumental in bringing about the treaty of alliance between France and the United States in 1778. He died in Versailles, Nov. 21, 1781.

Maury, DABNEY HERNDON, military officer; born in Fredericksburg, Va., May 21, 1822; graduated at the University of Virginia; and at the United States Military Academy in 1846; joined the Mounted Rifles in the same year, and served with marked distinction in the Mexican War. During the interval between that struggle and the Civil War he was an instructor at West Point and later superintendent of cavalry instruction and regimental adjutant at Carlisle Barracks. In 1861 he resigned his post and became a colonel in the Confederate army; was promoted brigadier-general for gallantry in the Elkhorn campaign. His publications include *System of Tactics in Single Rank; Recollections of a Virginian; History of Virginia*, etc. He died in Peoria, Ill., Jan. 11, 1900.

Maury, MATTHEW FONTAINE, scientist; born in Spottsylvania county, Va., June 14, 1806; entered the navy as midshipman in 1825, and while circumnavigating the globe began his treatise on *Navigation*. An accident in 1839 made him a permanent cripple, and he was placed in charge of the Hydrographic Office at Washington. On its union with the Naval Observatory, in 1844, he became its superintendent. He made extensive researches concerning the physical geography of the sea, and published an interesting work on the subject. He also made extensive investigations regarding the Gulf Stream. In 1861 he resigned his appointments from the government and espoused the cause of the Confederacy. In 1871 he was made president of the University of Alabama. He died in Lexington, Va., Feb. 1, 1873.

Maury, SARAH MYTTON, author; born in Liverpool, England, Nov. 1, 1803; was educated there; came to the United States in 1846. After her arrival she influenced Congress to pass a law making sanitary provisions for emigrant vessels obligatory. Her publications include *The Englishwoman in America; The Statesmen of America in 1846;* etc. She died in Virginia in October, 1849.

Mauvaises Terres. See BAD LANDS.

Maverick, SAMUEL, colonist; born in England in 1602; settled on Noddle's Island, Mass., in 1629. In 1664 he was appointed one of the four commissioners to settle political difficulties in New England, and to wrest New Netherland from the Dutch. He died in New Amsterdam about 1670.

Maxey, SAMUEL BELL, soldier and statesman; born in Tompkinsville, Ky., March 30, 1825; graduated at West Point in 1846; served through the Mexican War with credit; raised the 9th Texas C. S. I. in 1861; attained the rank of major-general; United States Senator from Texas, 1875–87. He died in Eureka Springs, Ark., Aug. 16, 1895.

Maxim, SIR HIRAM STEVENS, inventor; born in Sangerville, Me., Feb. 5, 1840; worked as a coach-builder and in ironworks; removed to England in 1881, where he invented an incandescent lamp, a smokeless powder, the Maxim gun, automatic system of firearms, and other ordnance inventions; and devoted much time to aerial navigation. He was knighted by Queen Victoria in 1901.

Maxim Gun, an automatic gun; invention of Sir Hiram S. Maxim. On a test experiment 2,004 shots were fired in

one minute forty-five seconds. At the same time, in a test for accuracy, out of 334 shots fired at a target 12 × 26 feet at a distance of 300 yards, 268 hits were made. The gun works itself after the first shot is fired until the cartridges in the belt or magazine are exhausted. See EXPLOSIVES.

Maximilian, FERDINAND JOSEPH, Archduke of Austria and Emperor of Mexico; born in Vienna, July 6, 1832, and, having entered the naval service, was made rear-admiral and chief of the Austrian navy in 1854. In 1857 he was made governor of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and in the same year married Charlotte, daughter of Leopold I., of Belgium. He departed for Mexico in April, 1864, and landed, with his wife, at Vera Cruz in May. The French army had already taken possession of the country. The archduke assumed the crown of Mexico, with the title of Maximilian I., and, being childless, adopted a son of ITURBIDE (*q. v.*) as his presumptive successor on the throne. Juarez, the President, who had been driven from the capital, and, with his followers, declared by the new Emperor to be an outlaw and usurper, made such strong resistance that Maximilian had to struggle for his throne from the very beginning. When the American Civil War was ended, Napoleon was given to understand, by the United States government, that the empire in Mexico and the presence of French troops there could not be regarded with favor by the citizens of the United States. The Emperor of the French acted upon this hint. He suggested the propriety of the abdication of Maximilian, but the latter would not consent, for he relied upon French arms to sustain him. His wife went to Europe to have an interview with the Emperor and also with the Pope, but the boon was refused, and her mind gave way under the pressure of her anxiety. Napoleon perfidiously abandoned Maximilian by withdrawing his troops, and left the latter to his fate, who, after struggling for a while to maintain his power, was captured by the Mexicans at Queretaro on May 14, 1867. He was shot, with two of his generals, on June 19. A vessel was sent from Austria, under the command of a vice-admiral, to convey his remains to his native country, and they were interred in the imperial vault in January, 1868. His wife yet (1905) lives, hopelessly insane.

Maxwell, WILLIAM, military officer; born in New Jersey; was made colonel of the 2d New Jersey Battalion in 1775, and served in the campaign in Canada in 1776. He had been in the provincial army continually for fifteen years before the Revolutionary War broke out. In October, 1776, he was appointed brigadier-general, and, in command of a New Jersey brigade, was distinguished at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He was in Sullivan's campaign in 1779, and soon after the action at Springfield, N. J., in 1780, he resigned. He died Nov. 12, 1798.

May, CORNELIUS JACOBSEN, colonial governor; commanded the Dutch trading-vessel *Fortune* on a trading excursion to Manhattan in 1613. The next year he coasted along New England to Martha's Vineyard. In 1620 he was on the coasts and rivers southward of Manhattan, in the ship *Glad Tidings*, visited Chesapeake Bay, and sailed up the James River to Jamestown. The bay at the mouth of the Delaware River the Dutch called New Port May, in compliment to their commander, and the southern extremity of New Jersey is still known as Cape May. In the spring of 1623, Captain May conveyed to Manhattan thirty families, chiefly Walloons, in the ship *New Netherland*, with Adriaen Joris as lieutenant. May remained at Manhattan as first director or governor of the colony. He was succeeded by William Verhulst, second director of New Netherland, and returned to Holland. Excepting his career in America, little is known of his life.

Mayaguez, a seaport town of Porto Rico, in the province of the same name, about 50 miles west of Ponce. On Aug. 8, 1898, a body of American troops, under Brig.-Gen. Theodore Schwan, advanced rapidly from Yanco towards Mayaguez. On the same date Sabona la Grande was occupied, and on Aug. 10, San German. The Americans then attacked the Spaniards near Hormigneros, and with a rapid charge carried the position in face of a heavy fire. The casualties of the engagement, as officially reported, were, on the American side, one killed and fifteen wounded; on the Spanish side, twenty-five

killed and fifty wounded. On the next morning, Aug. 11, General Schwan entered Mayaguez unopposed.

Mayer, Alfred Marshall, physicist; born in Baltimore, Md., Nov. 13, 1836; left college and entered the draughting-room of a mechanical engineer. Later he took a laboratory course and made a specialty of chemistry. He was appointed Professor of Physics and Chemistry in the University of Maryland in 1856, and three years later accepted the similar chair in Westminster College, Fulton, Mo., where he remained two years. In 1867–71 he was Professor of Astronomy in Lehigh University, and from 1871 till his death Professor of Physics in Stevens Institute of Technology, Hoboken, N. J. In 1869 he had charge of a party sent to Burlington,

Alfred M. Mayer

Ia., to observe the solar eclipse of Aug. 7, for the *United States Nautical Almanac*. During this eclipse he took forty-one successful photographs. In 1871–75 he contributed a series of investigations entitled *Researches in Acoustics* to the *American Journal of Science*. Later these investigations led to his inventions of the topophone and the acoustic pyrometer. He was the author of many scientific works. He died in Maplewood, N. J., July 13, 1897.

Mayer, Brantz, author; born in Baltimore, Md., Sept. 27, 1809; was educated at St. Mary's College, Baltimore, and made a trip to the East Indies, visiting Sumatra, China, and Japan, returning in 1828. He was admitted to the bar in 1829; was appointed secretary of legation to Mexico in 1841, and afterwards published two important works on that country. He was an accurate and industrious writer, and issued several valuable publications, besides numerous occasional addresses. During the Civil War and afterwards he held the office of paymaster in the army, and resided in California a few years. He was one of the judges at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876. He died in Baltimore, March 21, 1879.

Mayes, Joel Bryan, Indian chief; born in the Cherokee reservation, Ga., Oct. 2, 1833. His grandfather was James Adair (*q. v.*). In 1838 he removed to the Indian Territory (see Cherokee Indians), where he taught in the Indian schools until the outbreak of the Civil War, when he joined the Confederate army as quartermaster. After the war he was elected to the supreme court of the Cherokees, and in 1887 became chief of the nation.

Mayflower Descendants, Society of, an organization founded in New York City, Dec. 22, 1894, by the lineal descendants of the *Mayflower* Pilgrims. The purpose of the society is "to preserve their memory, their records, their history, and all facts relating to them, their ancestors, and their posterity." Any lineal descendant of a Pilgrim of the *Mayflower* who has reached the age of eighteen years is eligible to membership. The annual meeting occurs on Nov. 21, the anniversary of the signing of the "Compact." The total membership in 1900, scattered over several of the New England and Middle States, was 2,500. Henry E. Howland is governor-general, and Richard Henry Greene is secretary-general. See Massachusetts.

Mayflower Log. The *Mayflower* Society of Massachusetts, through Ambassador Bayard, petitioned the British government for the return to the United States of the log of the ship *Mayflower*, upon which the Pilgrims sailed for this country in 1620. Queen Victoria favored the society's request, and the relic was returned in June, 1897, and given into the keeping of the governor of Massachusetts. See Bradford, William; Plymouth, New.

Mayhew, JONATHAN, clergyman; born in Martha's Vineyard, Mass., Oct. 8, 1720; graduated at Harvard in 1744, and ordained minister of the West Church, Boston, in 1747, which post he held until his death, July 9, 1766. He was a zealous republican in politics, and his preaching and writing were remarkable for their controversial character. He warmly opposed the operations of the British Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, for he regarded it as an instrument for the spread of Episcopacy. He became involved in a controversy with Dr. Secker, Archbishop of Canterbury, because the latter proposed the introduction of bishops into the colonies; co-operated with Otis and others in their resistance to measures of the British Parliament concerning the Americans; and was among the boldest of the Whigs. His death deprived the cause of a stanch champion.

Maynard, HORACE, diplomatist; born in Waynesboro, Mass., Aug. 13, 1814; graduated at Amherst College in 1838; removed to Tennessee in 1839; admitted to the bar in 1845; elected to Congress in 1857 and 1865; attorney-general of Tennessee in 1864; president of the Border State Convention in 1867; minister to Russia in 1875–80; appointed Postmaster-General by President Hayes in 1880. He died in Knoxville, Tenn., May 3, 1882.

Mayo, WILLIAM KENNON, naval officer; born in Drummondtown, Va., May 29, 1829; entered the navy in 1841; and served in the Mexican War. In July, 1861, when the Virginia convention met, he was declared an alien enemy, and forever banished from that State because of his adhesion to the Union. His service during the Civil War was marked with skill and bravery. He was promoted commodore in 1882, and retired after forty-five years' service in 1886. He died in Washington, D. C., April 10, 1900.

Mazzei, PHILIP, patriot; born in Tuscany in 1730; was a practising physician at Smyrna for a while, and was engaged in mercantile business in London in 1755–73. He came to America in December, 1773, with a few of his countrymen, for the purpose of introducing into Virginia the cultivation of the grape, olive, and other fruits of Italy. He formed a company for the purpose. Jefferson was a member of it, and Mazzei bought an estate adjoining that of Monticello to try the experiment. He persevered three years, but the war and other causes made him relinquish his undertaking. Being an intelligent and educated man, he was employed by the State of Virginia to go to Europe to solicit a loan from the Tuscan government. He left his wife in Virginia, when he finally returned to Europe, in 1783, where she soon afterwards died. He revisited the United States in 1785, and in 1788 wrote a work on the *History of Politics in the United States*, in 4 volumes. In 1792 Mazzei was made privy councillor to the King of Poland; and in 1802 he received a pension from the Emperor Alexander, of Russia, notwithstanding he was an ardent republican.

During the debates on Jay's treaty, Jefferson watched the course of events from his home at Monticello with great interest. He was opposed to the treaty, and, in his letters to his partisan friends, he commented freely upon the conduct and character of Washington, regarding him as honest but weak, the tool and dupe of rogues. In one of these letters, addressed to Mazzei, he declared that "in place of that noble love of liberty and republican government" which carried the Americans triumphantly through the late struggle, "an Anglican, monarchical, aristocratic party" had sprung up, resolved to model our form of government on that of Great Britain. He declared that the great mass of citizens, the whole landed interest, and the talent of the country, were republicans; but opposed to them were the executive (Washington), the judiciary, two out of three of the national legislature, "all the officers of the government, all who want to be officers, all timid men who prefer the calm despotism to the boisterous sea of liberty, British merchants and Americans trading on British capital, speculators and holders in the banks and public funds—a contrivance invented for the purpose of corruption, and for assimilating us in all things to the rotten as well as the sound parts of the British model." "It would give you a fever," he continued, "were I to name to you the apostates who have gone over to these heresies — men who were Samsons in the field and Solomons in the coun-

cil, but who have had their heads shorn by the harlot of England."

This was used as political capital by the Federalists until the election of Jefferson to the Presidency. Mazzei died in Pisa, March 19, 1816.

Mead, Edward Campbell, author; born in Newton, Mass., Jan. 12, 1837; travelled in the Orient in 1858–59, and later engaged in farming. He is the author of *Genealogical History of the Lee Family of Virginia and Maryland; Biographical Sketch of Anna M. Chalmers;* and *Historic Homes of the Southwest Mountains of Virginia.*

Mead, Edwin Doak, editor of the *New England Magazine;* born in Chesterfield, N. H., Sept. 29, 1849; studied in English and German universities, 1875–79; since then engaged in lecturing and literary work. He is the director of the Old South historical work in Boston, and has edited and annotated many of the Old South leaflets.

Mead, Larkin Goldsmith, sculptor; born in Chesterfield, N. H., Jan. 3, 1835; studied drawing and sculpture with Henry K. Brown; and during the Civil War was employed on *Harper's Weekly* as a war artist. His works include the National Lincoln Monument in Springfield, Ill., Soldiers' Monument in St. Johnsbury, Vt.; statues of Ethan Allen in the National Art Gallery in Washington, D. C., and the State Capitol, Montpelier, Vt., etc.

Meade, George Gordon, military officer; born in Cadiz, Spain, Dec. 31, 1815; graduated at West Point in 1835, served in the war with the Seminoles, and resigned from the army in 1836. He practised civil engineering until May, 1842, when he was appointed a second lieutenant of topographical engineers, serving through the war against Mexico, attached to the staff, first of General Taylor, and then of General Scott. The citizens of Philadelphia presented him with an elegant sword on his return from Mexico. In the summer of 1861 he was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, having been in charge of the surveys on the northern lakes until that year as captain of engineers. He was in the Army of the Potomac, active and efficient, from 1861 until the close of the war. In June, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers, and was in command of the Army of the Potomac in the summer of 1863. On July 1, 2, and 3, of that year he fought the decisive battle of Gettysburg. In 1864 he was made major-general in the United States army; and from July, 1865, to

GEORGE GORDON MEADE.

August, 1866, was in command of the Military Division of the Atlantic, and subsequently of the Department of the East and the military district comprising the States of Florida, Georgia, and Alabama. In 1865 he received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard University. He died in Philadelphia, Nov. 6, 1872. The citizens of Philadelphia presented to his wife the house in which he died, and $100,000 was afterwards raised for his family. See Adams, Charles Francis; Everett, Edward; Gettysburg, Battle of.

Meade, Richard Worsam, naval officer; born in New York City, Oct. 9, 1837; entered the navy as midshipman in 1850; promoted passed midshipman, 1856; master and lieutenant, 1858; lieutenant-commander, 1862; commander, 1868; captain, 1880; commodore, 1892; and rear-admiral, 1894; and was retired in May, 1895. During the Civil War he served with much distinction. In 1861–62 he was instructor in gunnery on the receiving ship *Ohio,* in Boston; in the latter half of 1862 he commanded the *Louisville,* and was employed in aiding the Western armies and in checking guerilla warfare between Memphis and Helena on the Mississippi

River. From September, 1863, till May, 1864, he commanded the gunboat *Marblehead*, of the South Atlantic blockading squadron. He took part in the battle of Stono River, S. C., Dec. 25, 1863, when he resisted the Confederate attempts to sink his vessel, drive the National transports out of the river, and turn the left flank of General Gillmore. Later he landed and destroyed the batteries of the enemy. In 1864–65, while with the Western Gulf blockading squadron, he destroyed or captured seven blockade-runners. In 1870, in the international yacht race in New York Harbor, he commanded the *America*, which outsailed the English competitor, *Cambria*. In 1893 he was naval commissioner to the World's Columbian Exhibition. His retirement before the age limit resulted from a disagreement with the Navy Department concerning the way in which he had been treated officially. An article which appeared in the New York *Tribune* represented Admiral Meade as criticising the administration, and using the sentence, "I am an American and a Union man—two things this administration can't stand." Subsequently when Secretary Herbert asked him to affirm or deny this criticism he returned a non-committal answer. Soon there were rumors that he would be court-martialled for disrespect to the President, whereupon he requested his retirement. President Cleveland, in granting his request, censured his conduct. He died in Washington, D. C., May 4, 1897.

Meade, WILLIAM, clergyman; born near Millwood, Frederick (now Clarke) co., Va., Nov. 11, 1789; son of Richard Kidder Meade, one of Washington's confidential aides; graduated at Princeton in 1808, and became a minister of the Protestant Episcopal Church. He was an earnest and active worker for his church and the best interests of religion. In 1829 he was made assistant bishop of the diocese of Virginia, and became bishop on the death of Bishop Moore in 1841. For several years he was the acknowledged head of the "evangelical" branch of the Church in the United States. In 1856 he published *Old Churches, Ministers, and Families in Virginia*. He died in Richmond, Va., March 14, 1862.

Meagher, THOMAS FRANCIS, military officer; born in Waterford, Ireland, Aug. 3, 1823; was educated in Ireland and in England. In 1846 he became one of the leaders of the Young Ireland party. He was already distinguished for his oratory, and was sent to France to congratulate the French Republic in 1848. On his return he was arrested on a charge of sedition and held to bail. Afterwards charged with treason, he was again arrested, tried, found guilty, and sentenced to death. That sentence was commuted to banishment for life to Van Diemen's Land, from which he escaped, and landed in New York in 1852. Lecturing with success for a while, he studied law, entered upon its practice, and in 1856 edited the *Irish News*. When the Civil War broke out he raised a company in the 69th New York Volunteers, and, as major of the regiment, fought bravely at Bull Run. Early in 1862 he was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers, and served in the Army of the Potomac in the campaign against Richmond that year. He was in Richardson's division in the battle of Antietam. Engaged in the desperate battle of Fredericksburg, he was badly wounded. Immediately after the battle of CHANCELLORSVILLE (*q. v.*) he resigned. He was recommissioned brigadier-general of volunteers early in 1864, and was assigned to the command of the district of Etowah. In 1865 he was appointed secretary, and

THOMAS FRANCIS MEAGHER.

in 1866 became acting governor of Montana. While engaged in operations against hostile Indians, he was drowned at Fort Benton, Mont., July 1, 1867.

Mechanic Arts. See AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES; SCHOOLS OF TECHNOLOGY; MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOLS.

Mechanicsville, or Ellison's Mill, BATTLE OF. Gen. Robert E. Lee, who had been recalled from Georgia, was placed in command of the Confederate army led by Johnston, after the latter was wounded (see FAIR OAKS, BATTLE OF). He prepared to strike McClellan a fatal blow or to raise the siege of Richmond. He had quietly withdrawn Jackson and his troops from the Shenandoah Valley, to have him suddenly strike the right flank of McClellan's army at Mechanicsville and uncover the passage of that stream, when a heavy force would join him, sweep down the left side of the Chickahominy towards the York River, and seize the communications of the Army of the Potomac with the White House. McClellan did not discover Jackson's movement until he had reached Hanover Court-house. He had already made provision for a defeat by arrangements for a change of base from the Pamunkey to the James River; and when, on the morning of June 25, 1862, he heard of the advance of Jackson on his right, he abandoned all thought of moving on Richmond, took a defensive position, and prepared for a retreat to the James River. On the right side of the Chickahominy General Porter was posted with 27,000 men and ten heavy guns in battery. At 3 P.M., on the 26th, Gen. A. P. Hill crossed the river and drove a regiment and a battery at Mechanicsville back to the main line near Ellison's Mill, where the Nationals were strongly posted. There, on a hill, McCall's Pennsylvania Reserves were posted, 8,500 strong, with five batteries. These, with a part of Meade's brigade, were supported by regulars under Morell and Sykes. General Reynolds held the right, and General Seymour the left, and the brigades of Martindale and Griffin were deployed on the right of McCall. In the face of these formidable obstacles, and a heavy fire of infantry and artillery, the leading brigades of Hill advanced, followed by Longstreet's, and moved to the attack. They massed on the National right to turn it, expecting Jackson to fall upon the same wing at the same time; but this movement was foiled by Seymour. A terrific battle ensued. The Confederates were hurled back with fearful carnage. At 9 P.M. the battle of Mechanicsville, or Ellison's Mill, ceased. The loss of the Nationals was about 400; that of the Confederates, between 3,000 and 4,000. By this victory Richmond was placed at the mercy of the National army; but McClellan, considering his army and stores in peril, prepared to transfer both to the James River.

MECHANICSVILLE, 1862.

Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. See DECLARATIONS OF INDEPENDENCE.

Medal of Honor Legion, an organization of officers and enlisted men of the Union army who, during the Civil War, were awarded medals of honor for special acts of bravery and devotion under an act of Congress of 1862. Up to 1901, 1,500 of these medals had been awarded to veterans of the army, and 600 to naval veterans, of which 69 were on account of the war with Spain.

Medals. The following table is a list of the medals awarded by the Congress of the United States.

Date of Resolution.	To whom presented.	For what service.	Metal.
March 25, 1776	Gen. George Washington	Capture of Boston	Gold.
Nov. 4, 1777	Brig.-Gen. Horatio Gates	Defeat of Burgoyne	"
July 26, 1779	Maj.-Gen. Anthony Wayne	Storming of Stony Point	"
" " "	Lieut.-Col. De Fleury	" " " "	Silver.
" " "	Maj. John Stewart	" " " "	"
Sept. 24, "	Maj. Henry Lee	Surprise of Paulus Hook	Gold.
Nov. 3, 1780	John Paulding	Capture of André	Silver.
" " "	David Williams	" " "	"
" " "	Isaac Van Wart	" " "	"
March 9, 1781	Brig.-Gen. Daniel Morgan	Victory of the Cowpens	Gold.
" " "	Lieut.-Col. William A. Washington	" " "	Silver.
" " "	Lieut.-Col. John E. Howard	" " "	"
Oct. 29, "	Maj.-Gen. Nathanael Greene	Victory at Eutaw Springs	Gold.
Oct. 16, 1787	Capt. John Paul Jones	Capture of the *Serapis*, 1779	"
March 29, 1800	Capt. Thomas Truxton	Action with the *Vengeance* (French)	"
March 3, 1805	Com. Edward Preble	Tripoli	"
Jan. 29, 1813	Capt. Isaac Hull	Capture of the *Guerrière*	"
" " "	Capt. Jacob Jones	" " *Frolic*	"
" " "	Capt. Stephen Decatur	" " *Macedonian*	"
March 3, "	Capt. William Bainbridge	" " *Java*	"
Jan. 6, 1814	Lieut. Edward R. McCall	" " *Boxer*	"
" " "	Com. Oliver H. Perry	Victory on Lake Erie	"
" " "	Capt. Jesse D. Elliott	" " " "	"
Jan. 11, "	Capt. James Lawrence	Capture of the *Peacock*	"
Oct 20, "	Com. Thomas Macdonough	Victory on Lake Champlain	"
" " "	Capt. Robert Henley	" " " "	"
" " "	Lieut. Stephen Cassin	" " " "	"
Oct. 21, "	Capt. Lewis Warrington	Capture of the *Epervier*	"
Nov. 3, "	Capt. Johnston Blakely (to the widow)	" " *Reindeer*	"
" " "	Maj.-Gen. Jacob Brown	Victory of Chippewa, etc.	"
" " "	Maj.-Gen. Peter B. Porter	" " "	"
" " "	Brig.-Gen. E. W. Ripley	" " "	"
" " "	Brig.-Gen. James Miller	" " "	"
" " "	Maj.-Gen. Winfield Scott	" " "	"
" " "	Maj.-Gen. Edmund P. Gaines	" " Erie	"
" " "	Maj.-Gen. Alexander Macomb	" " Plattsburg	"
Feb. 27, 1815	Maj.-Gen. Andrew Jackson	" " New Orleans	"
Feb. 22, 1816	Capt. Charles Stewart	Capture of the *Cyane* and *Levant*	"
" " "	Capt. James Biddle	" " *Penguin*	"
April 4, 1818	Maj.-Gen. William H. Harrison	Victory of the Thames	"
" " "	Gov. Isaac Shelby	" " "	"
Feb. 13, 1835	Col. George Groghan (22 years after)	Defence of Fort Stevenson, 1813	"
July 16, 1846	Maj.-Gen. Zachary Taylor	Victory on Rio Grande	"
March 2, 1847	" " "	Capture of Monterey	"
March 3, "	British, French, and Spanish officers and crews	Rescuing crew of U. S. brig-of-war *Somers* before Vera Cruz, Dec. 7, 1846	Gold & silver.
March 9, 1848	Maj.-Gen. Winfield Scott	Mexican campaign	Gold.
May 9, "	Maj.-Gen. Zachary Taylor	Victory of Buena Vista	"
Aug. 4, 1854	Capt. Duncan N. Ingraham	Release of Martin Koszta	"
May 11, 1858	Dr. Frederick H. Rose, of the British navy	For humanity—care of yellow-fever patients from Jamaica to New York on the U. S. S. *Susquehanna*	"
Dec. 21, 1861 July 16, 1862	Naval, to be bestowed upon petty officers, seamen, and marines distinguished for gallantry in action, etc.; 200 issued		
July 12, " March 3, 1863	Army, to non-commissioned officers and privates for gallantry in action, etc.; 2,000 issued	At Gettysburg, July 1, 1863, the 27th Maine volunteered to remain for the battle, although its term had expired. All its members received medals	Bronze.
Dec. 17, "	Maj.-Gen. Ulysses S. Grant	Victories of Fort Donelson, Vicksburg, Chattanooga	Gold.
Jan. 28, 1864	Cornelius Vanderbilt	Gift of ship *Vanderbilt*	"
July 26, 1866	Capts. Creighton, Low, and Stouffler	Rescuing 500 passengers from the S. S. *San Francisco*, July 26, 1853. Creighton, of the *Three Bells*, Glasgow; Low, of the bark *Kelly*, of Boston; and Stouffler, of the ship *Antarctic*, Liverpool	"

MEDALS AWARDED BY THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES—*Continued.*

Date of Resolution.	To whom presented.	For what service.	Metal.
March 2, 1867	Cyrus W. Field	Laying the Atlantic cable	Gold.
March 16, "	George Peabody	Promotion of education	"
March 1, 1871	George F. Robinson	Saving William H. Seward from assassination, April 14, 1865. Besides the medal, $5,000	"
Feb. 24, 1873	Capt. Crandall and others, Long Island light-house keeper and crew	Saving passengers from the *Metis*, of the New York and Providence line, Aug. 31, 1872	"
June 16, 1874	Centennial medals		
June 20, "	Life-saving medals. 1st and 2d class	There have been presented as awards for life-saving since the passage of the resolution 167 gold and 209 silver medals up to July 1, 1892	Gold & silver.

Medical Schools. Medical education in the United States at the close of the school year 1901–02 was promoted by 154 schools, which had 5,029 professors and instructors, and a total of 26,821 students. As far as reported the endowments of these schools aggregated $2,132,568. The value of the grounds and buildings was placed at $12,986,642, and the libraries contained about 156,929 volumes. These schools included the regular medical, the homœopathic, the eclectic, and the physio-medical, and with few exceptions the principal ones were departments of large colleges and universities.

Medicine and Surgery in the United States. The position of physician-general of the colony of Virginia was held one year by Lawrence Bohun, who arrived 1610; and afterwards by John Pot, the first permanent resident physician in the United States. Samuel Fuller, first physician of New England, arrived in the *Mayflower* in 1620, and Johannes la Montagne, first permanent medical settler in New Amsterdam, arrived 1637, followed the next year by Gerrit Schult and Hans Kiersted, while Abraham Staats settled at Albany prior to 1650. Lambert Wilson, a "chirurgeon" or surgeon, was sent to New England in 1629 to serve the colony three years, and "to educate and instruct in his art one or more youths."

Anatomical lectures were delivered in Harvard College by Giles Firman before 1647

Earliest law to regulate practice of medicine in the colonies was passed in Massachusetts in 1649; adopted by New York 1665

Earliest recorded autopsy and verdict of a coroner's jury was made in Maryland on a negro supposed to have been murdered by his master; surgeons received fees for "dissecting and viewing the corpse," one hogshead of tobacco .....Sept. 24, 1657

Treatise on small-pox and measles published at Boston by Thomas Thacher; a sheet 15½ × 10½ inches—the first medical work published in America 1677

First quarantine act passed by the General Assembly of Pennsylvania.. 1700

First general hospital chartered in the colonies — Pennsylvania hospital of Philadelphia—organized 1751, opened .....Dec., 1756

Medical department, University of Pennsylvania, founded 1765

College of Physicians and Surgeons, medical department of King's College, New York, established 1767

First clinical instruction in America given by Thomas Bond in Pennsylvania hospital 1769

Term "doctor" first applied to medical practitioners or "physitians" in America (*Toner*) 1769

Medical department, Harvard University, founded 1783

Philadelphia Dispensary for the gratuitous treatment of the sick poor, first in the United States, established 1786

Earliest example of a special American Pharmacopœia is a thirty-two-page work of William Brown, published at Philadelphia, and designed especially for the army 1788

"Doctors' mob" in New York 1788

New York Dispensary organized Jan. 4, 1791; incorporated 1795

Elisha Perkins, of Norwich, Conn., patents his "metallic tractors," afterwards known as "Perkinism" 1796

First original American medical journal, the *Medical Repository*, appears. 1797

Medical department of Dartmouth College established 1798

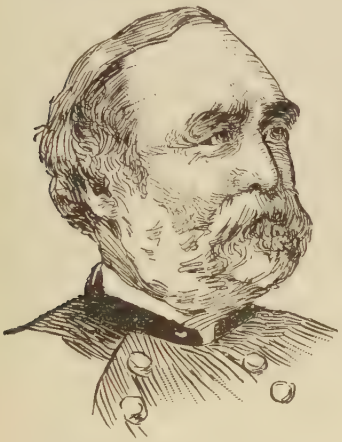
First general quarantine act passes Congress .....Feb. 23, 1799

First vaccination in United States performed by Benjamin Waterhouse, professor in Harvard College, on his four children .....July, 1800

First vaccine institute in the United States organized by James Smith in Baltimore, Md. 1802
American Dispensatory published by John Redman Coxe 1806
Ovariotomy performed incidentally by Robert Houston in Glasgow (1701) and by L'Aumonier, in Rouen (1781), is performed by Ephraim McDowell, of Kentucky 1809
United States vaccine agency established by Congress (discontinued in 1822) 1813
Work on *Therapeutics and Materia Medica*, the first in the United States and best in the English language at that time, published by Nathaniel Chapman 1817
John Syng Dorsey, of Philadelphia, author of *Elements of Surgery* (1814), and first surgeon to tie the external iliac artery, died (aged 35). 1818
New York Eye and Ear Infirmary founded 1820
Pennsylvania Eye and Ear Infirmary, Philadelphia, founded 1822
Benjamin W. Dudley, founder of the medical department, University of Transylvania, Lexington, Ky., trephines the skull for epilepsy, probably the first instance in the United States 1828
Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary, Boston, founded 1829
Dispensatory of the United States of America, first published by Franklin Bache and George B. Wood 1833
Oesophagotomy first performed by John Watson, of New York; case reported. 1844
Water-cures introduced into the United States by R. T. Trall, who opened a hydropathic institute in New York in 1844, and Joel Shew, at Lebanon Springs, N. Y. 1845
Left subclavian artery tied by J. Kearney Rodgers 1846
Collodion first applied to surgical purposes by J. Parker Maynard in Boston 1847
Elizabeth Blackwell graduated M.D. at the medical school of Geneva, N. Y. (the first woman in the United States) .....Jan., 1849
First excision of the hip-joint in the United States performed by Henry J. Bigelow, professor in Harvard College 1852
Elkanah Williams, of Cincinnati, earliest specialist in ophthalmology, begins practice 1855
Arteria innominata tied for the first time by Valentine Mott, of New York (1818); by R. W. Hall, of Baltimore (1830); by E. S. Cooper, of San Francisco (1859); and again, being the first case in which the patient's life was saved, by A. W. Smyth, of New Orleans 1864
Horace Green, said to have been the first specialist in diseases of the throat and lungs, died 1866
Centennial international medical congress held in Philadelphia 1876
New York Polyclinic organized 1880-81, opened 1882
Valentine Mott, of New York, reports four apparently successful inoculations for hydrophobia, performed by himself .....Oct., 1886
The ninth international medical congress held in Washington. Sept. 5-10, 1886
International medico - legal congress opens in Steinway Hall.....June 4, 1889
Fortieth meeting of American Medical Association opens in Newport, R. I.. June 25, 1889
Experiments with the Brown-Séquard life elixir cause the death of ten people in Shamokin, Pa.....Aug. 16, 1889
The stetho-telephone is patented by James Louth, Chicago.....Jan. 27, 1890
The twelfth annual congress of the American Laryngological Association meets in Baltimore.....May 29, 1890
New York Institution for the Diseases of the Eye and Ear opened..Aug. 19, 1890
American Institution of Homœopathy meets in Washington, D. C....June, 1892
Pan-American medical congress in Washington opened.....Sept. 5, 1893
Fifteenth annual meeting of the American Medico-Psychological Association in Philadelphia.....June 15, 1894
Triennial Congress of American Association of Physicians and Surgeons opens in Washington, D. C...May 29, 1894
First visit of Prof. Adolph Lorenz to the United States to demonstrate bloodless operations 1902

Meigs, Montgomery Cunningham, military officer; born in Augusta, Ga., May 3, 1816; graduated at the United States Military Academy, and commissioned a second lieutenant in the 1st Artillery and a brevet second lieutenant of engineers, all on July 1, 1836; resigned July 31, 1837; reappointed brevet second lieutenant of engineers on the following day; promoted first lieutenant in 1838; captain in 1853; colonel of the 11th Infantry and brigadier-general and quartermaster-general, in May, 1861; brevetted major-general, U. S. A., July 5, 1864; and was retired, Feb. 6, 1882. He was considered the foremost scientific officer in the regular army, and distinguished himself as its quartermaster-general during the Civil War, and also as an engineer. While in the latter service he was employed in the construction of a number of forts, and superintended the building of the Potomac aqueduct, of the wings and dome of the extension of the national Capitol, and of the extension of the Post-

Office Department. Subsequently he was employed in preparing plans for the National Museum, and the new State,



MONTGOMERY CUNNINGHAM MEIGS.

War, and Navy Department buildings, and, after his retirement, was the architect of the new Pension building, all in Washington. He presented a remarkable collection of historical articles to the United States government, for deposit in the National Museum. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 2, 1892.

Meigs, RETURN JONATHAN, military officer; born in Middletown, Conn., Dec. 17, 1734; hastened with a company to Cambridge after the affair at Lexington; accompanied Arnold to Quebec, with the rank of major, where he was made prisoner; and having raised a regiment in 1777, was made a colonel, and performed a brilliant exploit at SAG HARBOR (*q. v.*). He commanded a regiment at STONY POINT (*q. v.*), and served faithfully to the end of the war. He was one of the first settlers of Marietta, O. He died in the Cherokee agency, Ga., Jan. 28, 1823.

Meigs, RETURN JONATHAN, jurist; born in Middletown, Conn., in November, 1765; son of the preceding; graduated at Yale College in 1785; and went with his father to Marietta, O., in 1788. There he took a conspicuous part in public affairs, and was often engaged in Indian fights. In 1803–4 he was chief-justice of Ohio; and for two years he was commander of the St. Charles district of Louisiana, with the brevet of colonel, U. S. A. He was a United States district judge in Michigan; United States Senator from 1808 to 1810; and governor of Ohio from 1810 to 1814. His services during the War of 1812 were of incalculable value. From 1814 to 1823 he was Postmaster-General. He died in Marietta, O., March 29, 1825.

Meigs, FORT. When, in 1813, General Harrison heard of the advance of Winchester to the Maumee and the Raisin, he ordered all of his available force to push forward to reinforce that officer. The advancing column was soon met by fugitives from Frenchtown, and thoughts of marching on Malden were abandoned for the time. The troops fell back to the rapids of the Maumee, and there built a fortification which was called Fort Meigs, in honor of the governor of Ohio. Harrison's troops there were about 1,800 in number, and were employed under the direction of Captain Wood, chief engineer of his army. The work was about 2,500 yards in circumference, the whole of which, with the exception of several small intervals left for block-houses, was to be picketed with timber 15 feet long and from 10 to 12 inches in diameter, set 3 feet in the ground. When the fort was finished, March, 1813, the general and engineer left the camp in the care of Captain Leftwich, who ceased work upon it, utterly neglected the suffering garrison, and actually burned the pickets for fire-wood. On the return of Wood, work on the fort was resumed, and pushed towards completion.

Harrison had forwarded Kentucky troops from Cincinnati, and on April 12 he himself arrived at Fort Meigs. He had been informed on the way of the frequent appearance of Indian scouts near the rapids, and little skirmishes with what he supposed to be the advance of a more powerful force. Expecting to find Fort Meigs invested by the British and Indians, he took with him all the troops on the Auglaize and St. Mary's Rivers. He was agreeably disappointed to find, on his arrival, that no enemy was near in force. They soon appeared, however. Proctor, at Fort Malden, had formed plans for an early invasion of the Maumee Val-

ley. Ever since the massacre at Frenchtown he had been active in concentrating a large Indian force for the purpose at Amherstburg. He so fired the zeal of Tecumseh and the Prophet by promises which they were sheltered. Their ammunition was scarce, and it was used sparingly; they had an abundant supply of food and water for a long siege. Still Harrison felt anxious. He looked hourly

LOOKING UP THE MAUMEE VALLEY, FROM FORT MEIGS.

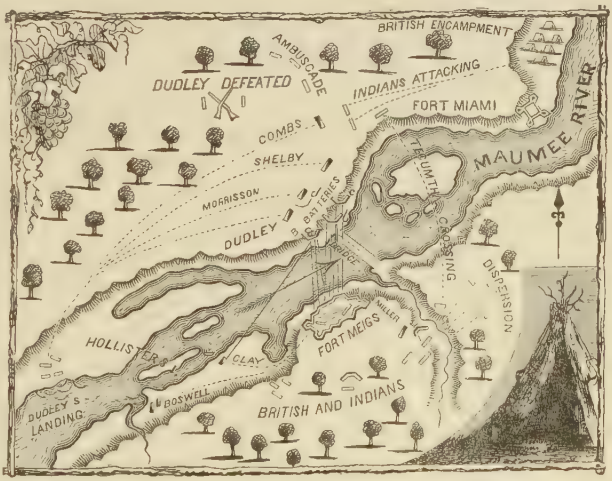
of future success in the schemes for an Indian confederation that, at the beginning of April, the great Shawnee warrior was at Fort Malden with 1,500 Indians. Full 600 of them were drawn from the country between Lake Michigan and the Wabash. On April 23 Proctor, with white and dusky soldiers, more than 2,000 in number, left Amherstburg on a brig and smaller vessels, and, accompanied by two gunboats and some artillery, arrived at the mouth of the Maumee, 12 miles from Fort Meigs, on the 26th, where they landed. One of the royal engineers (Captain Dixon) was sent up with a party to construct works on the left bank of the Maumee, opposite Fort Meigs.

On April 28 Harrison was informed of the movement of Proctor and his forces. He knew that Gen. Green Clay was on the march with Kentuckians, and he despatched Capt. William Oliver with an oral message urging him to press forward by forced marches. Meanwhile Proctor and his forces had arrived, and on the morning of May 1, 1813, he opened a cannonade and bombardment from the site of Maumee City upon Fort Meigs, and continued, with slight intermission, for five days, but without much injury to the fort and garrison. The fire was returned occasionally by 18-pounders. The Americans had built a strong traverse athwart the fort, behind up the Maumee for the appearance of Clay with reinforcements. The latter had heard the cannonading at the fort, and had pressed forward as rapidly as possible. Proctor had thrown a force of British and Indians across the river to gain the rear of the fort, and these the vanguard of Clay encountered. When the latter officer drew near he received explicit orders from Harrison to detach 800 men from his brigade, to be landed on the left bank of the river, a mile and a half above Fort Meigs, to attack the British batteries, spike their guns, destroy their carriages, and then cross the river to the fort; the remainder of Clay's troops to fight their way to the fort.

These orders met Clay as he was descending the Maumee in boats (May 5). Colonel Dudley was appointed to lead the expedition against the British batteries. The work was successfully performed; but a band of riflemen, under Capt. Leslie Combs, being attacked by some Indians in ambush, Dudley led reinforcements to them. The Indians were soon put to flight, but Dudley, unmindful of his instructions, pushed on in pursuit, leaving Col. Isaac Shelby in charge of the batteries. Both the British and Indians were reinforced; the batteries were retaken; and after a sharp fight, in which Shelby's troops participated, Dudley's whole command was put to flight, and dispersed in great con-

fusion. A great part of them were killed or captured. Dudley was slain and scalped, and Combs and many companions were marched to Fort Miami below as prisoners. Of the 800 who landed from the boats only 170 escaped to Fort Meigs.

While these scenes were occurring on the left bank of the Maumee, there was a desperate struggle on the fort side. A part of the remainder of Clay's command, under Col. W. E. Boswell, having landed a short distance above the fort, were ordered to fight their way in. They were soon attacked by a body of British and Indians, but were joined by a sallying party from the fort; and while a sharp struggle was going on there, Harrison ordered a helpful sortie from the fort to attack some works cast up by the enemy near a deep ravine. This was done by 350 men, under Col. John Miller, of the regulars. They found a motley force there, 850 strong, but they were soon driven away and their cannon spiked. The fight was desperate, the Americans being surrounded at one point by four times their own number. The victors returned to the fort with forty-three captives. Boswell in the mean time had utterly routed the force before him at the point of the bayonet. Fort Meigs was saved. The result of that day's fighting, and the ill-success of all efforts to reduce the fort, caused Proctor's Indian allies to desert him, and the Canadian militia to turn their faces homeward. The Prophet had been promised by Proctor the whole Territory of Michigan as his trophy, and Tecumseh was to have the person of General Harrison, whom he had intensely hated since the Battle of Tippecanoe (*q. v.*), as his. These promises were unfulfilled, and the Indians left in disgust. Only Tecumseh's commission and pay of a brigadier-general in the British army secured his further services.



MAP OF THE SIEGE OF FORT MEIGS.

Melville, George Wallace, naval engineer; born in New York, Jan. 10, 1841; was educated in the public schools and at the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute; entered the U. S. N. as third assistant engineer on July 29, 1861; was promoted second assistant engineer, Dec. 18, 1862; first assistant engineer, Jan. 30, 1865; passed assistant engineer, Feb. 24, 1874; chief engineer, March 4, 1881; and was retired Jan. 10, 1903. On Aug. 9, 1887, Captain Melville was appointed chief of the bureau of steam engineering in the navy with the relative rank of commodore, and on the abolition of the grade of commodore by the Navy Personnel Act in 1899 he was given the rank of rear-admiral during his occupancy of the office of chief engineer. In 1879 he joined the *Jeannette* polar expedition under the command of Lieut. George W. De Long, and sailed from San Francisco July 8. The vessel was crushed by the ice and sunk June 12, 1881. Melville and De Long succeeded in reaching land 150 miles apart, with a portion of the crew. De Long and all but two of his men perished from cold and starvation on the banks of the Lena. The next spring Melville with his companions explored the delta for traces of the missing party. After finding the remains of De Long and his companions he returned to the United

GEORGE WALLACE MELVILLE.

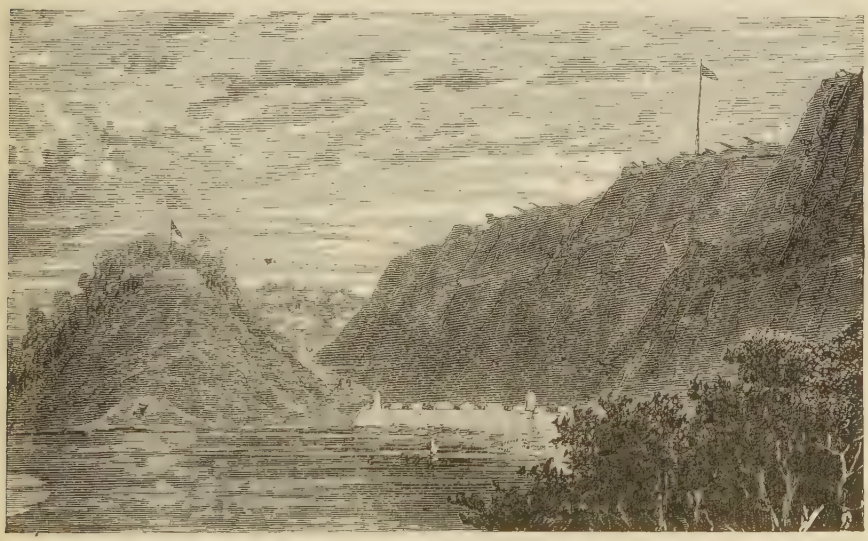
States. He has contributed largely to the building up of the new navy; designed the triple-screw machinery for the two swiftest cruisers, *Columbia* and *Minneapolis;* and invented many mechanical appliances. He is president of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers and author of *In the Lena Delta.* See ARCTIC EXPLORATIONS.

Melyn, CORNELIUS, patroon; born in Antwerp; came to Manhattan in 1639, and was so pleased that he returned and brought over his family and began a colony on Staten Island, under the authority of the Amsterdam directors. His domain was near the Narrows, and he was vested with the privilege of a patroon. Melyn was active, and was chosen one of the Eight Men, under Kieft. He quarrelled with Kieft, and, as president of the Eight Men, he wrote a vigorous letter to the States-General urging them to interfere in behalf of the province. On the accession of Stuyvesant, he was falsely accused of rebellious practices as one of Kieft's council of Eight Men, and a prejudiced verdict was given against him. He was sentenced to seven years' banishment from the colony, to pay a heavy fine, and to "forfeit all benefits to be derived from the company." Kuyter, another of the Eight involved in the same charges, received a somewhat less severe punishment. He and Melyn sailed for Holland in the same ship with Kieft, which was lost on the coast of Wales, but both were saved, while eighty others were drowned. The authorities in Holland reversed the sentence, and Melyn and Kuyter returned to Manhattan, when he demanded that his vindication should be made as public as had the sentence of disgrace; but his redress was denied. Melyn was persistently persecuted by Stuyvesant, and at length, weary with suffering, he returned to Holland to seek justice there. He joined delegates of the commonalty of New Amsterdam, who wrote voluminous documents, filled with complaints against Stuyvesant's administration. There were promises of relief, but their fulfilment was delayed, and when Melyn returned to New Netherland Stuyvesant renewed his persecutions. He made new charges against the patroon, confiscated his property in New Amsterdam, and compelled him to confine himself to his manor on Staten Island. Melyn finally abandoned New Netherland (1657) and went to New Haven, where he took the oath of fidelity; and in 1661 he surrendered his manor and patroonship to the West India Company. Soon afterwards the whole of Staten Island became the property of the company.

Memminger, CHARLES GUSTAVUS, financier; born in Würtemberg, Germany, Jan. 9, 1803; was taken to Charleston, S. C., in infancy; graduated at South Carolina College in 1820, and began to practise law in 1826. In the nullification movement in South Carolina (see NULLIFICATION) he was a leader of the Union men. In 1860 he was a leader of the Confederates in that State, and on the formation of the Confederate government was made Secretary of the Treasury. He had been for nearly twenty years at the head of the finance committee of the South Carolina legislature. He died March 7, 1888.

In January, 1860, as a representative of the political leaders in South Carolina, he appeared before the legislature of Virginia as a special commissioner to enlist the representatives of the "Old Dominion" in a scheme to combat the abolitionists. In the name of South Carolina, he

proposed a convention of the slave-labor States to consider their grievances and to "take action for their defence." In an able plea he reminded the Virginians of their narrow escape from disaster by John Brown's raid, and the necessity of a Southern union to provide against similar perils. He concluded by saying: "I have delivered into the keeping of Virginia the cause of the South." He reported that he "found it difficult to see through" the Virginia legislature, for they hesitated to receive his gospel. The slave-holders of that State who were deriving a princely revenue from the inter-State slave-trade—



FORT PILLOW.

from $12,000,000 to $20,000,000 a year—were averse to forming a part of a confederacy in which the African slave-trade was to be reopened and encouraged. Mr. Memminger, in his report, said: "I see no men, however, who would take the position of leaders in a revolution."

Memorial, or Decoration Day. The 30th day of May is generally observed as a holiday by the citizens of the United States, when the touching ceremony of decorating the graves of Union soldiers and sailors all over the land is performed, in public and private cemeteries, with appropriate ceremonies. The 20th of May is observed in the Southern States as "Memorial Day," when the graves of Confederate soldiers and sailors are also decorated with flowers, with imposing ceremonies. In recent years there has been a happy commingling of the Boys in Blue and the Boys in Gray on these respective occasions.

Memphis, CAPTURE OF. After the capture of Island Number Ten, Commodore Foote went down the Mississippi with his flotilla, and transports bearing Pope's army, to attempt the capture of Memphis, but was confronted at Chickasaw Bluffs, 80 miles above that city, by a Confederate flotilla under Capt. J. S. Hollins and 3,000 troops under Gen. Jeff M. Thompson, who occupied a military work on the bluffs, called Fort Pillow, then in command of General Villepigue, an accomplished engineer. On April 14, 1862, Foote began a siege of Fort Pillow with his mortar-boats, and soon drove Hollins to the shelter of that work. Pope, whose troops had landed on the Arkansas shore, was unable to co-operate, because the country was flooded, and being soon called by Halleck to Shiloh, Foote was left to operate alone. He was finally compelled to turn over the command to Capt. C. H. Davis on account of the painfulness of a wound he had received at Fort Donel-

son. On May 10 Hollins attacked Davis, but was repulsed, notwithstanding he was aided by the heavy guns of Fort Pillow. For more than a fortnight afterwards the belligerent fleets watched each other, when a "ram" squadron, commanded by Col. Charles Ellet, Jr., joined Davis's flotilla and prepared to attack Hollins. The Confederates, having just heard of the flight of Beauregard from Corinth, which uncovered Memphis, hastily evacuated Fort Pillow (June 4) and fled down the river in transports to Memphis, followed by Hollins's flotilla. On June 6 the National flotilla won a victory over the Confederate squadron in front of Memphis, when that city was surrendered to the Union forces. It was speedily occupied by troops under Gen. Lew. Wallace, who were received with joy by the Union citizens. All Kentucky, western Tennessee, northern Mississippi, and Alabama were then in possession of the National authorities. The population of Memphis in 1890 was 64,495; in 1900, 102,320.

Ménard, René. See Jesuit Missions.

Menendez de Avilés, Pedro, naval officer; born in Avilés, Spain, in 1519; entered the Spanish naval service in his youth. After successfully battling with French corsairs, Philip II. of Spain appointed him captain-general of the India fleet. Menendez carried that monarch to England to marry Queen Mary, and took him back on his return. In 1565 Philip made him governor of Florida; and just before he was to depart the King was informed of the Huguenot settlement there, and fitted out an expedition for their destruction. Menendez sailed with thirty-four vessels, bearing 2,600 persons—farmers, mechanics, soldiers, and priests. Arriving at Porto Rico with a small part of his force, Menendez heard of the reinforcements Ribault had taken to Florida, and he immediately went to the mouth of the St. John with Philip's cruel order to murder all the Huguenots. Failing to catch the French fleet that escaped from the St. John, Menendez landed farther southward, built a fort, and founded St. Augustine (*q. v.*). Marching overland, he attacked and captured the French Fort Carolina, putting nearly the whole of the garrison to death. Only seventy of the colonists escaped, and some of the prisoners were hanged. Ribault's ships that went out to drive Menendez from St. Augustine were wrecked, and a portion of the crew, with Ribault, falling into the

MENENDEZ'S EXPEDITION ON ITS WAY TO THE NEW WORLD.

DE GOURGUES AVENGING THE MASSACRE OF THE HUGUENOTS BY MENENDEZ.

hands of the Spaniards, were nearly all put to death. These outrages were avenged by a Frenchman named De Gourgues. In 1570 Menendez sent a colony of Jesuits to establish a mission near Chesapeake Bay. They were massacred by Indians. In 1572 he explored the Potomac and the Chesapeake Bay, and was preparing to colonize that region, when his King appointed him commander of a fleet against the Low Countries. While preparing for this expedition he died, in Santander, Sept. 17, 1574. See FLORIDA; HUGUENOTS.

Mennonites. This sect derives its name from Simon Menno, the founder, who lived early in the sixteenth century. He separated his followers from the other bodies of Protestants in Holland and Germany, and gave them a system of church order. Their peculiar beliefs consisted in condemning all war as sinful, also oaths and lawsuits, and in looking for the personal reign of Christ in the millennium. All immoral practices were condemned by them, and their own conduct has been exemplary, prudent, and devout. Historians rank them as among the best Christians of the Church, and the best citizens any State ever had. Towards the end of the sixteenth century William, Prince of Orange, granted the Mennonites a settlement in the United Provinces. Their confession of faith was made public in 1626, and in 1649 they adopted a system of church policy, which is still generally adhered to by them. Persecution in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries drove many from other European countries to take refuge in Holland, where the church became very strong. They established a theological seminary at Amsterdam in 1735. They are now one of the strongest religious bodies in Holland. In the seventeenth century many Mennonites emigrated to Russia, but a century later persecution drove them largely from that country. In 1786, however, Catharine II. offered special privileges to the members of this religious body to persuade them to settle in the kingdom. This induced a large emigration of them thither, where by their diligence they gained great prosperity. They were always protected and favored by the government until 1871, when their most valued privilege—exemption from military duty—was taken from them. This brought about the removal of the larger part of the Russian Mennonites to the United States.

The first members of these to come to this country was a delegation that came in 1683, by invitation of William Penn. Others followed in subsequent years, settling in Pennsylvania and other States, but their numbers were comparatively few here until the coming of the colonies from Russia. These have generally settled in Kansas and Nebraska. There have been

several secessions from the main body of the Mennonites. The Reformed Mennonites seceded in 1811. Another branch, the New Mennonites, organized in 1847, and an offshoot from this, the Evangelical Mennonites, was formed in 1856. The Amish Mennonites form still another withdrawal from the main body. These latter are often known as "Hookers," because they substitute hooks for buttons on their clothes.

The Mennonites in the United States are divided into twelve branches, as follows: Mennonites proper, Amish, Reformed, General Conference, Bundes Conference, Defenceless, Brethren in Christ, Bruederhoef, Old Amish, Apostolic, Church of God in Christ, and Old (Wisler). In 1904 the principal bodies reported the following statistics:

	Ministers.	Churches.	Members.
Mennonite	425	288	22,974
Amish	274	124	13,413
Reformed	43	34	1,680
General Conference	135	76	10,545
Bundes Conference	44	16	3,000
Defenceless	20	11	1,126
Brethren in Christ	76	59	3,103
Total	1,017	608	55,841

Men of the Woods. See CAYUGA INDIANS.

Menomonee Indians, a family of the Algonquian nation, residing upon the Menomonee River, in Wisconsin. They assert that their ancestors emigrated from the East, but they were found on their present domain in 1640 by the French. Jesuit missions were established among them in 1670 by Allouez and others. The Menomonees were fast friends of the French, marched to the relief of Detroit in 1712, and subsequently drove the Foxes from Green Bay. Some of their warriors were with the French against Braddock in 1755; also at the capture of Fort William Henry, on Lake George, and on the Plains of Abraham with Montcalm. In the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 they were the friends of the English. They assisted in the capture of Mackinaw in 1812, and were with Tecumseh at Fort Meigs and at Fort Stephenson in 1813. After that they made several treaties with the United States, and they served the government against the Sacs and Foxes in 1832 (see BLACK HAWK WAR). The religion of the Menomonees was that of all the other tribes in the North. They are now about half pagans and half Roman Catholics. They refused to join the Sioux in their outbreak in 1861, and several of their warriors were volunteers in the National army. They are fading, like the other tribes. In 1822 they numbered nearly 4,000; in 1899, 1,375, all at the Green Bay agency.

Mercer, HUGH, military officer; born in Aberdeen, Scotland, about 1720; became a physician, and was assistant surgeon at the battle of Culloden, on the side of the Pretender, and was obliged to leave his country. He came to America in 1747, was a captain in the French and Indian War, was severely wounded in the battle

HUGH MERCER.

where Braddock was defeated, and received a medal from the corporation of Philadelphia for his prowess in that expedition. He was made lieutenant-colonel in 1758; entered heartily into the military service when the Revolutionary War broke out, and was made colonel of the 3d Virginia Regiment in February, 1776. In June following Congress made him a brigadier-general. He led the column of attack at the BATTLE OF TRENTON (*q. v.*), and at the council of war there he suggested the daring night march on Princeton. In the battle that ensued the following morning he was mortally wounded, and died Jan. 12, 1777. See PRINCETON, BATTLE OF.

Mercer, FORT, a strong work on the New Jersey shore of the Delaware, not far below Philadelphia, which in 1777 had a garrison under the command of Col. Chris-

topher Greene, of Rhode Island. After Howe had taken possession of Philadelphia, in September of that year, he felt the necessity of strengthening his position; so, in the middle of October, he ordered Gen. Sir Henry Clinton to abandon the forts he had captured in the Hudson Highlands, and send 6,000 troops to Philadelphia. He had just issued this order, when news of the surrender of Burgoyne and his army reached him. He then perceived that he must speedily open the way for his brother's fleet to ascend the Delaware to Philadelphia or all would be lost. He ordered Count Donop to take 1,200 picked Hessian soldiers, cross the Delaware at Philadelphia, march down the New Jersey shore, and take Fort Mercer by storm. He obeyed, and at the same time the British vessels of war in the river opened a furious cannonade on Fort Mifflin, opposite. Already the works at Billingsport, below, had been captured, and a narrow channel had been opened through obstructions above. This admitted British vessels to approach near enough to cannonade the two forts.

On the approach of Donop (Oct. 22), Greene abandoned the outworks of Fort Mercer, and retired into the principal redoubt. At the edge of a wood, within cannon-shot of the fort, Donop planted a battery of ten heavy guns, and late in the afternoon demanded the instant surrender of the fort, threatening that, in case of refusal and resistance, no quarter would be given. Colonel Greene had only 400 men back of him, but he gave an instant and defiant refusal, saying, "We ask no quarter, nor will we give any." Then the besiegers opened their heavy guns, and, under their fire, pressed up to storm the fort. They were received by terrible volleys of musketry and grape-shot from cannon, while two concealed American galleys smote them with a severe enfilading fire. The slaughter of the assailants was fearful. Count Donop instantly fell, and many of his officers were slain or mortally wounded. At twilight the invaders withdrew, after a loss of 208 men. The Americans lost thirty-seven, killed and wounded. Donop died three days after the battle. He said, "I die a victim to my ambition and the avarice of my sovereign."

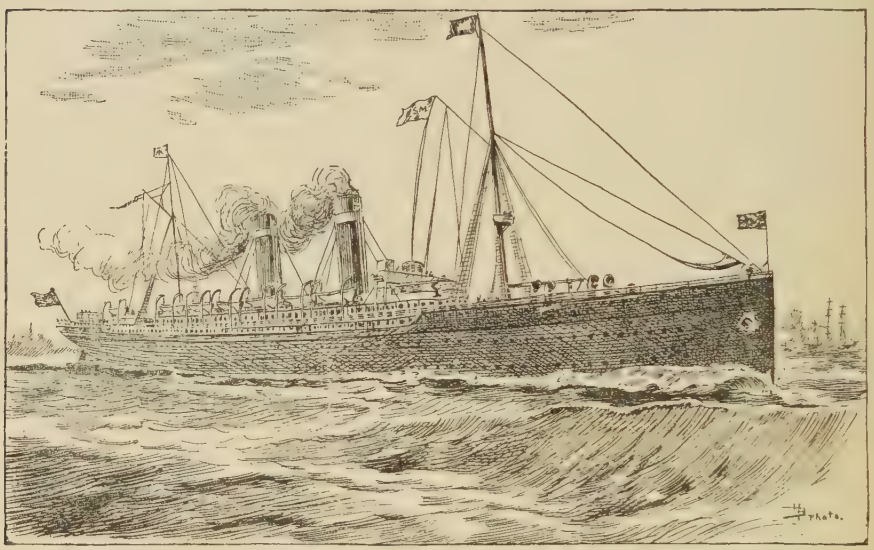
Merchant Marine. At the close of the War of 1812, the United States was noted throughout the world for the excellence of its sailing-vessels. As the use of steamships increased, however, this supremacy was lost, and in 1870, when iron and steel vessels began to be needed,

LAUNCH OF THE SHIP FAME, 1802.

the ship-building industry in this country had nearly vanished. In 1890 almost the entire carrying trade of American ports was done in British bottoms. Realizing that this was a serious condition, Congress in 1892 passed several acts for the encouragement of American ship-builders, and admitted to American registry two Inman Line steamers on condition that the owners should build at least two vessels of equal tonnage in American yards. On Nov. 12, 1894, the *St. Louis*, the first-fruit of this law, was launched at Philadelphia. The vessel was wholly American in build and material, and was the second largest merchant vessel afloat. Subsequently this fleet was increased, and became known as the American Line. In the American-Spanish War of 1898 the *St. Paul*, *St. Louis*, *New York*, and *Paris* were used as auxiliary cruisers, the first two under their own names, and the others under those of the *Yale* and *Harvard*.

The official report of the United States commissioner of navigation for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, showed that 1,446 vessels, of 393,168 gross tons, were built and documented in the United States. Since 1856 this record was exceeded only twice—in 1864, when 415,740 gross tons were built, and in 1874, when 432,725 gross tons were built.

The construction was classed according to the following types: Schooners, schooner-barges, and sloops, 499, of 109,605 gross tons; Great Lake steam-vessels, 25, of 97,847 gross tons; canal-boats and barges, 523, of 74,860 gross tons; ocean screw steamships, 20, of 60,369 gross tons (of which all but one, the *Maracaibo*, 1,771 gross tons, were built wholly or principally for trades reserved by law to American vessels); river-steamers, 375, of 44,282 gross tons; square-rigged vessels, 4, of 6,205 gross tons.



THE AMERICAN STEAMER ST. LOUIS.

The steam-vessels built—420, of 202,498 gross tons—surpassed the record, the nearest approach being 1891, when 488 steam-vessels, of 185,037 gross tons, were built.

The steel vessels built—90, of 196,851 gross tons—exceeded the previous record year, 1899, when 91 such vessels, of 131,379 gross tons, were built. Cleveland, O., ranked first as builder of steel vessels, with 9 steamships, of 42,119 gross tons, followed by Newport News, 7 steamships, of 28,202 gross tons; Chicago, 5

vessels, 24,504 tons; Detroit, 4 steamships, 15,693 tons.

During the decade 1890–1900 the steel steam-vessels built in the United States aggregated 465, of 742,830 gross tons, of which 198, of 450,089 gross tons, were built on the Great Lakes. For comparison it may be noted that the British board of trade reports that 727 steel steam-vessels, of 1,423,344 gross tons, were built in the United Kingdom during 1899. During the ten years 69 steel steam-vessels, of 194,080 gross tons, were built at Cleveland, and 110, of 138,593 gross tons, at Philadelphia.

The total tonnage built and documented on the Great Lakes during the year—125 vessels, of 130,611 gross tons — was the largest in the history of that region. The total for the Middle Atlantic and Gulf coasts—605 vessels, of 135,473 tons—exceeded any record since 1872. The total for the New England coast—199 vessels, of 72,179 gross tons — had not been equalled since 1891, while the product of the Pacific coast—300 vessels, of 40,396 tons—was surpassed only by the returns of 1898 and 1899. Construction on the Mississippi River and tributaries—217 vessels, 14,509 tons—was 9,000 less than 1899. The foregoing figures do not cover yachts nor government vessels.

Meredith, WILLIAM MORRIS, lawyer; born in Philadelphia, June 8, 1799; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1812; elected to the State legislature in 1824; and appointed Secretary of the United States Treasury in 1849. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 17, 1873.

Mergenthaler, OTTMAR, inventor; born in Würtemberg, Germany, May 10, 1854; came to the United States friendless and penniless when eighteen years old; and first secured employment under the government in Washington to look after the mechanism of clocks, bells, and signal service apparatus. In 1876 he was employed by a mechanical engineering firm in Baltimore. Later, while in the employment of this firm, he made experiments that led to the invention of a type-setting machine. For four years he spent all his leisure time in perfecting his plans. He first conceived the idea of a rotary apparatus, but afterwards made a complete change in his plan and adopted the linotype scheme, which he finally perfected. His machine was worked by a key-board similar to that of a typewriter, and was capable of setting a line of type or dies, adjusting it to a desired width, and casting it into a solid line of type-metal. He secured patents for his invention, but it was not a practical success until the Rogers spacer was purchased by the linotype company which he organized. He died in Baltimore, Md., Oct. 28, 1899.

Merrimac. See MONITOR AND MERRIMAC.

Merriman, TITUS MOONEY, clergyman; born in Charleston, P. Q., Canada, April 23, 1822; graduated at Canada Baptist College, Montreal, in 1844; and ordained in the Baptist Church. He became a naturalized citizen of the United States in 1882. His publications include *Trail of History; Pilgrims, Puritans, and Roger Williams Vindicated; Historical System,* etc.

Merritt, WESLEY, military officer; born in New York, June 16, 1836; graduated at the United States Military Academy, and brevetted second lieutenant in the 2d United States Dragoons on July 1, 1860; was promoted successively to second and first lieutenant in the 2d Cavalry in 1861; captain, 1862; lieutenant-colonel of the 9th Cavalry in 1866; colonel of the famous 5th Cavalry in 1876; brigadier-general, April 16, 1887; and major-general, April 5, 1895; and was retired June 16, 1900. In the volunteer service he was commissioned a brigadier-general, June 29, 1863; brevetted major-general, Oct. 19, 1864; and promoted to major-general, April 1, 1865. During the greater part of the Civil War he served in the Army of the Potomac, taking part in all of its battles, and distinguishing himself at Gettysburg, Yellow Tavern, Hawe's Shop, Five Forks, etc. From June, 1864, to the close of the war, he accompanied General Sheridan on his cavalry raids, commanded the cavalry division in the Shenandoah campaign, and the cavalry corps in the Appomattox campaign; was engaged in the battles of Trevillian Station, Winchester, Fisher's Hill, etc., and was one of the three commanders selected from the Union army to arrange with the Confederate commanders for the surrender of General Lee's army. After the war he was conspicuous in a number of Indian cam-

paigns; was superintendent of the United States Military Academy in 1882–87; and commander of the Department of the Atlantic till May, 1898, when he was assigned to the command of the United States forces about to be sent to the Philippine Islands. He reached Manila Bay in July; had charge of the operations around Manila and the capture of the

WESLEY MERRITT.

city, and afterwards relinquished the military command to GEN. ELWELL S. OTIS (*q. v.*), and assumed the duties of the first American military governor of the Philippines. In August he was ordered to Paris as an adviser to the American peace commissioners, and in December following he returned to the United States and was commandant of the Military Department of the East, with headquarters on Governor's Island, New York Harbor, till his retirement. See MANILA.

Merry Mount. See SALEM.

Metcalf, HENRY BREWER, Prohibitionist; born in Boston, Mass., April 2, 1829; removed to Rhode Island in 1872; was elected to the State Senate as a Republican in 1885; and was the candidate for Vice-President on the Prohibition ticket in 1900.

Metcalf, VICTOR HOWARD, lawyer; born in Utica, N. Y., Oct. 10, 1853; acquired an academic education; was graduated at the Yale Law School in 1876, and admitted to the Connecticut bar in the same year; later practised in New York City and Utica, and then removed to Oakland, Cal.; and was elected a member of Congress from that State in 1889. In June, 1904, he was appointed by President Roosevelt secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor to succeed GEORGE B. CORTELYOU (*q. v.*).

Metcalfe, THOMAS, legislator; born in Fauquier county, Va., March 20, 1780; became a stone-cutter. In the War of 1812–15 he commanded a company at the siege of FORT MEIGS (*q. v.*), in 1813. After serving in the Kentucky legislature, he was a member of Congress in 1819–29; governor of Kentucky in 1828–32; State Senator in 1834, and United States Senator in 1848–49. He died in Nicholas county, Ky., Aug. 18, 1855.

Methodist Episcopal Church, a religious denomination which dates its origin in the United States back to 1766. About thirty years prior thereto John and Charles Wesley visited America and labored in Georgia. It was reserved for Philip Embury and Robert Strawbridge to really organize the movement in America. Embury began his work in New York City, and in 1768 the first Methodist church in America was established on John Street. Strawbridge at about the same time gathered about him a few people in Frederick county, Md. The first annual conference was held in Philadelphia in 1773, but the Methodist Episcopal Church was not formally established till Dec. 24, 1784. They were without an ordained ministry during the Revolutionary War. When this condition of affairs was reported to John Wesley, he appointed Dr. Thomas Coke, a presbyter of the Church of England, to organize the Methodists of North America into a regular ecclesiastical body and to superintend the same. To aid him in this work Mr. Wesley sent with him Francis Asbury and two others. Dr. Coke and Francis Asbury were elected as superintendents, or bishops, by the first general conference above mentioned, which had met for the purpose of following Wesley's plan. The constitution of the Church as then adopted is held to consist of the General Rules of Conduct recommended by Mr. Wesley, the Articles of Religion, and

six rules to limit the power of the general conference, which meets every four years, and is the supreme legislative court of the church. The growth of Methodism in the United States has been very rapid. From 195,000 communicants in 1812 the number increased until in 1904 there were 2,822,765, including 17,053 ministers. The number of church edifices reported in the latter year was 27,021.

Methodist Episcopal Church, South, a religious body organized at a convention in Louisville, Ky., in 1845, by a number of annual Methodist conferences in the Southern States. The slavery agitation was the cause of the separation of the Northern and Southern Methodists. As early as 1780 a conference held at Baltimore adopted a resolution requiring itinerant preachers who owned slaves to set them free, and urging lay slave-holders to do the same. In 1789 the following sentence appeared in the rules of discipline which prohibited certain things: "The buying or selling the bodies and souls of men, women, or children, with an intention to enslave them." In 1816 the general conference passed an act that no slave-holder could hold any office in the Church, except in such States where the laws did not "admit of emancipation and permit the liberated slave to enjoy freedom." The agitation caused by slavery which continually disturbed the Church culminated in a serious condition in 1844, when Bishop Andrew, of the South, became a slave-holder by marriage. At the general conference held in New York, in May, 1844, a resolution was adopted, by a vote of 111 to 69, that Bishop Andrew "desist from the exercise of his office so long as he is connected with slavery." The outcome of the discussion was the report of a committee that the thirteen annual conferences in slave-holding States would "find it necessary to unite in a distinct ecclesiastical connection." In May of the following year these Southern conferences sent representatives to the convention in Louisville, Ky., which formally organized the "Methodist Episcopal Church, South." During and for some years after the Civil War the growth of the Southern Church was slow, but latterly it has been quite rapid. In 1904 this Church reported 6,381 ministers, 14,920 churches, and 1,533,766 members.

Methodist Protestant Church, a branch of Methodism established in 1830 by a number of ministers and members who had left or been expelled from the Methodist Episcopal Church. Prior to their organization they had held the opinion that the laity should be permitted to share in the government of the Church. To foster this opinion, a union society was formed in Baltimore, in 1824, which also published a periodical called *The Mutual Rights.* The agitation soon became so strong that a convention was called in 1827, which presented a petition to the general conference of 1828, requesting the representation of laymen. To this petition an unfavorable reply was remitted, which greatly increased the disaffection. Another convention met on Nov. 2, 1830, and the Methodist Protestant Church was founded with 5,000 members and eighty-three clergymen. During the first four years of its existence there was a rapid increase in membership. Their organization was greatly affected by the anti-slavery agitation, and finally there was a division; but in 1877 the two branches reunited under the old name. In doctrine the Methodist Protestant Church does not greatly differ from the Methodist Episcopal Church, save that it has twenty-nine instead of twenty-six articles of religion. In 1904 this denomination reported 1,537 ministers, 2,390 churches, and 184,040 members.

Metric System, a uniform decimal system of weights and measures, originated in France with a committee of eminent scientists, named by the Academy of Sciences by order of the Constituent Assembly, May 8, 1790. The basis of the system is the metre, which is 3.37 inches longer than the American "yard." This base, determined by Delambre and Méchain, is the 1-40,000,000 part of the circumference of the earth on the meridian extending through France from Dunkirk to Barcelona. It was made the unit of length and the base of the system by law, April 7, 1795. A prototype metre was constructed in platinum by an international commission, representing the governments of France, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland,

Spain, Savoy, and the Roman, Cisalpine, and Ligurian republics, in 1799. The unit of weight is the *gramme*, the weight of a cubic centimetre of water at 4° centigrade (the temperature of greatest density). The unit of measure of surface is the *are*, which is the square of the decametre, or 10 metres. The unit of measure of capacity is the *stere*, or cubic metre. The system is now in use in the United States Marine Hospital service, in the foreign business of the post-office, in the United States coast and geodetic survey, and to some extent in the mint, United States signal service, and United States census:

Decimal system of money adopted by the United States Congress, with the dollar as a unit.....July 6, 1785
John Quincy Adams, United States Secretary of State, makes an elaborate report on the metric system to Congress.....Feb. 23, 1821
By legislation of July 4, 1837, the use of the system in France is enforced, to take effect.....Jan. 1, 1840
International Decimal Association formed 1855
Canada adopts the decimal currency used in United States.....Jan. 1, 1858
Metric weight of 5 grammes (77.16 grains) and diameter of 2 centimetres given to the 5-cent copper nickel piece in the United States by act of Congress.....May 16, 1866
Use in the United States authorized by act of Congress, and table of equivalents approved.....July 28, 1866
Convention establishing an international bureau of weights and measures signed at Paris by representatives of Austria, Germany, Russia, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Turkey, Switzerland, Belgium, Sweden, Denmark, United States, Argentine Republic, Brazil, and Peru.....May 20, 1875
International congress on weights and measures meets at Paris.....Sept. 4, 1878

METRIC SYSTEM.

Unit of the measure of length.

Metre = 39.37 inches.

Decametre	10	metres.
Hectometre	100	"
Kilometre	1,000	"
Myriametre ...	10,000	"
Decimetre	.1	metre.
Centimetre	.01	"
Millimetre	.001	"

Unit of the measure of surface.

Centare = 1 sq. metre = 1,550 sq. inches.

Are	100	centares.
Hectare	10,000	"

Unit of the measure of capacity and solidity.

Litre = cube of .1 metre (decimetre) = 61.022 cubic inches or .908 qt.

Decalitre	10	litres.
Hectolitre	100	"
Kilolitre or stere.	1,000	"
Decilitre	.1	litre.
Centilitre	.01	"
Millilitre	.001	"

Unit of weight.

Gramme = cube of .01 metre (centimetre) = .061022 cubic inch or 15.432 grs.

Decagramme	10	grammes.
Hectogramme	100	"
Kilogramme	1,000	"
Myriagramme	10,000	"
Quintal	100,000	"
Millier or Tonneau.	1,000,000	"
Decigramme	.1	gramme.
Centigramme	.01	"
Milligramme	.001	"

Mexico, REPUBLIC OF, when first discovered by the Spanish adventurers, was in the possession of the Aztecs, a semi-civilized race of dark-hued people, who called their country *Mexitli*. Older occupants were the Toltecs, who came to the valley of Mexico, about the sixth century, and were the first known tribe on this continent who left a written account of their nationality and polity. Their empire ended in the twelfth century. The Aztecs appeared at the close of the thirteenth century, coming from Azatlan, an unknown region in the north. They seem to have first halted in their migrations southward at the Great Salt Lake in Utah; the next on the River Gila; and the last on the high plateau in the valley of Mexico, where they led a nomadic life until early in the fourteenth century, when they laid the foundation of a city upon an island in Lake Tezcuco, and called it Tenochtitlan; afterwards Mexitli (Spanish, Mexico), after their supreme god. It was a large and prosperous city when CORTEZ (*q. v.*) entered it on Nov. 8, 1519. MONTEZUMA (*q. v.*) was then emperor of the extended domain of the Aztecs. He lived in a fine palace in the city. Another palace was assigned to the use of Cortez as a guest, large enough to hold his whole army. By treachery and violence that adventurer took possession of the city and empire, caused the death of Montezuma and his successor, and annexed Mexico as a province to Spain.

The Mexicans were then very much enlightened. They worked metals, practised

many of the useful arts, had a system of astronomy, kept their records in hieroglyphics, and practised architecture and sculpture in a remarkable degree. They had a temple, pyramidal in shape, constructed solidly of earth and pebbles, and coated externally with hewn stones. The base was 300 feet square, and its top was reached by 114 steps spirally constructed. The top was a large area paved with great flat stones, and on it were two towers or sanctuaries, and before each an altar on which fire was perpetually burning. There they made human sacrifices. The conquest by Cortez was accomplished by the aid of native allies who had been subjected by the Aztecs and hated them. He began to rebuild the city of Mexico on its present plan while he was governor, and it remained in possession of the Spanish government until 1821, or just 300 years.

After years of revolutionary movements the Spanish province of Mexico was declared independent, Feb. 24, 1821, with Don Augustin Iturbide, a native of Mexico, at the head of the government as a republic. He afterwards became emperor. In 1836 it lost the fine province of Texas by revolution, and ten years afterwards that portion of ancient Mexico was annexed to the United States. In 1864 Napoleon III. placed MAXIMILIAN (*q. v.*), archduke of Austria, on a throne in Mexico, with the title of emperor. Juarez, the deposed President of the republic, struggled for power with the troops of the usurper, and succeeded. The Emperor of the French withdrew his troops and abandoned Maximilian, who was captured early in 1867, and was shot on June 19. The republic was re-established.

NATIONAL PALACE, CITY OF MEXICO.

Mexico, War with. The annexation of Texas caused an immediate rupture between the United States and Mexico, for the latter claimed Texas as a part of her territory, notwithstanding its independence had been acknowledged by the United States, England, France, and other governments. When Congress had adopted the joint resolution for the annexation of Texas (*q. v.*) to the United States, General Almonte, the Mexican minister at Washington, protested against the measure and demanded his passports. On June 4 following the President of Mexico (Herrara) issued a proclamation declaring the right of Mexico to the Texan territory, and his determination to defend it by arms, if necessary. At the same time there existed another cause for serious dispute between the United States and Mexico. The latter had been an unjust and injurious neighbor ever since the establishment of republican government in Mexico in 1824. Impoverished by civil war, it did not hesitate to replenish its treasury by plundering American vessels in the Gulf of Mexico, or by confiscating the property of American merchants within its borders. The United States government remonstrated in vain until 1831, when a treaty was made and promises of redress were given. These promises were never fulfilled. Robberies continued; and, in 1840, the aggregate value of property belonging to Americans which had been appropriated by the Mexicans amounted to more than $6,000,000. The claim for this amount was unsatisfied when the annexation of Texas took place in 1845.

Being fully aware of the hostile feelings of the Mexicans, President Polk ordered (July, 1845) Gen. Zachary Taylor, then in command of the United States troops in the Southwest, to go to Texas and take a position as near the Rio Grande as prudence would allow. This force, about 1,500 strong, was called the Army of Occupation for the defence of Texas. At the same time a strong naval force, under Commodore Conner, sailed to the Gulf of Mexico to protect American interests there. In September Taylor formed a camp at Corpus Christi, and there remained during the autumn and winter. He was ordered, Jan. 13, 1846, to move from his camp at Corpus Christi to the Rio Grande, opposite the Spanish city of Matamoras, because Mexican troops were gathering in that direction. This was disputed territory between Texas and the neighboring province of Tamaulipas. When he encamped at Point Isabel, March 25, on the coast, 28 miles from Matamoras, Taylor was warned by the Mexicans that he was upon foreign soil. He left his stores at Point Isabel, under a guard of 450 men, and with the remainder of his army advanced to the bank of the Rio Grande, where he established a camp and began the erection of a fort, which he named Fort Brown, in honor of Major Brown, in command there.

The Mexicans were so eager for war that, because President Herrera was anxious for peace with the United States, they elected General Paredes to succeed him. The latter sent General Ampudia, with a large force, to drive the Americans beyond the Nueces. This officer demanded of General Taylor, April 12, the withdrawal of his troops within twenty-four hours. Taylor refused, and continued to strengthen Fort Brown. Ampudia hesitated, when General Arista was put in his place as commander-in-chief of the Northern Division of the Army of Mexico. He was strongly reinforced, and the position of the Army of Occupation became critical. Parties of armed Mexicans soon got between Point Isabel and Fort Brown and cut off all intercommunication. A reconnoitring party under Captain Thornton was surprised and captured (April 24) on the Texas side of the Rio Grande, when Lieutenant Mason was killed. Having completed his fort, Taylor hastened to the relief of Point Isabel, May 1, which was menaced by a Mexican force, 1,500 strong, collected in the rear. He reached Point Isabel the same day. This departure of Taylor from the Rio Grande emboldened the Mexicans, who opened fire upon Fort Brown, May 3, from Matamoras, and a large body crossed the river to attack it in the rear. Taylor had left orders that in case of an attack, if peril appeared imminent, signal guns must be fired, and he would hasten to the relief of the fort.

On the 6th, when the Mexicans began to plant cannon in the rear and Major Brown was mortally wounded, the signals were given, and Taylor marched for the

Rio Grande on the evening of the 7th, with a little more than 2,000 men, having been reinforced by Texan volunteers and marines from the fleet. At noon the next day he fought and defeated Arista, with 6,000 troops, at PALO ALTO (*q. v.*). At 2 A.M. the next day his wearied army was summoned to renew its march, and, towards evening, fought a more sanguinary battle with the same Mexicans, at RESACA DE LA PALMA (*q. v.*). Again the Americans were victorious. The Mexican army in Texas was now completely broken up. Arista saved himself by solitary flight drove the Mexican troops from Matamoras, took possession of the town (May 18), and remained there until August, when he received reinforcements and orders from his government. Then, with more than 6,000 troops, he moved on Monterey, defended by General Ampudia, with more than 9,000 troops. It was a very strongly built town, at the foot of the great Sierra Madre. A siege commenced Sept. 21 and ended with the capture of the place on the 24th. General Wool had been directed to muster and prepare for service the volunteers gathered at Bexar, in Texas, and by the middle of

GENERAL TAYLOR'S ATTACK ON MONTEREY.

across the Rio Grande. The garrison at Fort Brown was relieved. In the meanwhile, Congress had declared, May 11, 1846, that, "by the act of the republic of Mexico, a state of war exists between that government and the United States," and authorized the President to raise 50,000 volunteers. They also (May 13) appropriated $10,000,000 for carrying on the war. The Secretary of War and General Scott planned a magnificent campaign. On May 23 the Mexican government also declared war.

General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande, July 12,000 of them had been mustered into the service. Of these, 9,000 were sent to reinforce Taylor. Wool went up the Rio Grande with about 3,000 troops, crossed the river at Presidio, penetrated Mexico, and, in the last of October, reached Monclova, 70 miles northwest of Monterey. He pushed on to Coahuila, where he obtained ample supplies for his own and Taylor's troops. General Taylor had agreed to an armistice at Monterey. This was ended Nov. 13, by order of his government, when, leaving General Butler in command at Monterey, he marched to Vic-

THE FIGHT IN THE STREETS OF MONTEREY.

toria, the capital of Tamaulipas, with the intention of attacking Tampico, on the coast. Meanwhile, General Worth, with 900 men, had taken possession of Saltillo (Nov. 15), the capital of Coahuila.

Taylor, ascertaining that Tampico had already surrendered to the Americans (Nov. 14), and that Santa Ana was collecting a large force at San Luis Potosi, returned to Monterey to reinforce Worth, if necessary. Worth was joined at Saltillo by Wool's division (Dec. 20), and Taylor again advanced to Victoria (Dec. 29). Just as he was about to proceed to a vigorous campaign, Taylor received orders from General Scott, at Vera Cruz, to send the latter a large portion of his (Taylor's) best officers and troops, and to act only on the defensive. This was a severe trial for Taylor, but he cheerfully obeyed. He and Wool were left with an aggregate force of only about 5,000 men, of whom only 500 were regulars, to oppose 20,000, then gathering at San Luis Potosi, under Santa Ana. Taylor and Wool united their forces, Feb. 4, 1847, on the San Luis road, determined to fight the Mexicans, who were approaching. The opportunity was not long delayed. The Americans fell back to Buena Vista, within 11 miles of Saltillo, and encamped in a narrow defile, and there a severe battle was fought, Feb. 23, resulting in victory for the Americans.

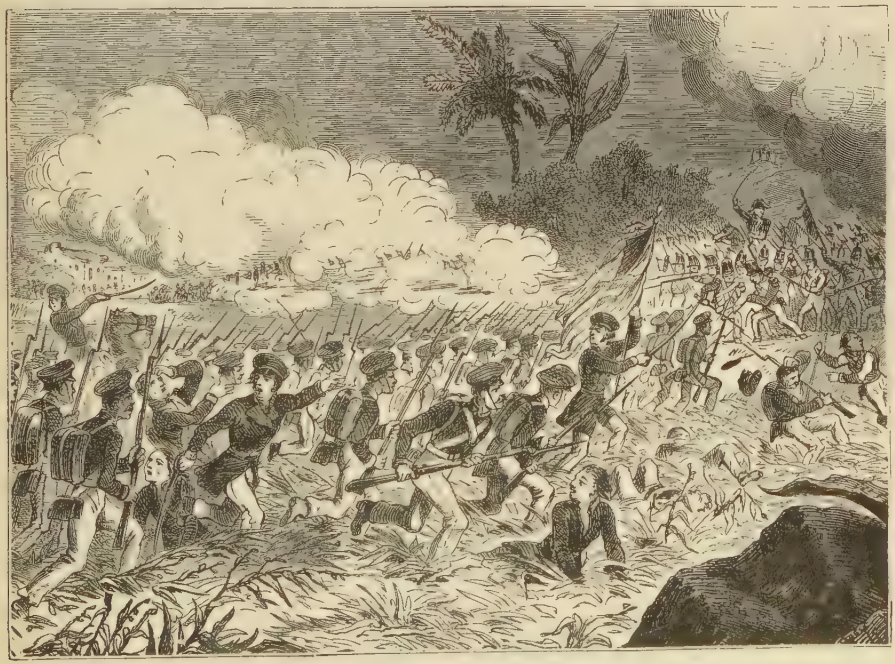
Gen. Stephen W. Kearny (*q. v.*) was placed in command of the Army of the West, with instructions to conquer New Mexico and California. He left Fort Leavenworth in June, 1846, and, after a journey of 900 miles over the great plains and among mountain ranges, he arrived at Santa Fé, Aug. 18, having met with no resistance. Appointing Charles Brent governor, he marched towards California, and was soon met by an express from Commodore Robert F. Stockton (*q. v.*), and Lieut-Col. John C. Frémont (*q. v.*), informing him that the conquest of California had been achieved. Frémont and a party of explorers, sixty in number, joined by American settlers in the vicinity of San Francisco, had captured a Mexican force at Sonoma pass, June 15, 1846, with the garrison, nine cannon, and 250 muskets. He then defeated another force at Sonoma, and drove the Mexican authorities out of that region of country. On July 5 the Americans in California declared themselves independent, and put Frémont at the head of affairs. On the 7th Commodore Sloat, with a squadron, bombarded and captured Monterey, on the coast; on the 9th Commodore Montgomery took possession of San Francisco. Commodore Stockton and Colonel Frémont took possession of Los Angeles on Aug. 17, and there they were joined by Kearny, who had sent the main body of his troops back to Santa Fé. Frémont went to Monterey, and there assumed the office of governor, and proclaimed, Feb. 8, 1847, the annexation of California to the United States.

Meanwhile, Colonel Doniphan, detached

by Kearny, with 1,000 Missouri volunteers, marched towards Chihuahua to join General Wool. In two engagements with Mexicans he was victorious, and entered the capital of Chihuahua in triumph, March 2, and took possession of the province. After resting six weeks, he joined Wool at Saltillo, and thence returned to New Orleans, having made a perilous march from the Mississippi of about 5,000 miles.

The conquest of all northern Mexico was now complete, and General Scott was on his march for the capital. He had landed at Vera Cruz, March 9, with an army of 13,000 men. It had been borne thither by a powerful squadron, commanded by Commodore Conner. He invested the city of VERA CRUZ (*q. v.*) on the 13th, and on the 27th it was surrendered with the castle of San Juan de Ulloa. Scott took possession of the city two days afterwards, and, on April 8, the advance of his army, under General Twiggs, began its march for the capital, by way of Jalapa. Santa Ana had advanced, with 12,000 men, to meet the invaders, and had taken post at Cerro Gordo, a difficult mountain pass at the foot of the Eastern Cordilleras. Scott had followed Twiggs with the rest of his army, and, on April 18, defeated the Mexicans at that strong pass, and, pushing forward, entered Jalapa on the 19th. On the 22d the American flag was unfurled over the Castle of Perote, on the summit of the Eastern Cordilleras, 50 miles from Jalapa. This was considered the strongest fortress in Mexico, excepting Vera Cruz. It was surrendered without resistance, and with it fifty-four pieces of cannon, some mortars, and a large amount of munitions of war.

Onward the victorious army marched, and entered the fortified city of Puebla, May 15, a city of 80,000 inhabitants; and there the army rested until August. Being reinforced, Scott then pushed on towards the capital. From that very spot on the lofty Cordilleras, Cortez first looked down upon the quiet valley of Mexico, centuries before. Scott now beheld that



BATTLE OF CHURUBUSCO.

spacious panorama, the seat of the capital of the Aztecs—the "Halls of the Montezumas." He pushed cautiously forward, and approached the stronghold before the city. The fortified camp of Contreras was taken by the Americans on Aug. 20. Then the strong fortress of San Antonio yielded the same day. The heights of Churubusco were attacked. Santa Ana advanced, and soon the whole region became one great battle-field. Churubusco was taken, and Santa Ana fled towards the capital. A Mexican army, 30,000 strong, had in a single day been broken up by another less than one-third its strength in number, and at almost every step the Americans were successful. Full 4,000 Mexicans were killed and wounded, 3,000 were made prisoners, and thirty-seven pieces of cannon were captured on that memorable day. The Americans had lost 1,100 in killed and wounded.

They might now have entered the city of Mexico in triumph, but General Scott preferred to bear the olive-branch rather than the palm. As he advanced to Tacuba, Aug. 21, only 7 miles from the city, he met a deputation from Santa Ana to ask for an armistice, preparatory to negotiations for peace. It was granted. NICHOLAS P. TRIST (*q. v.*), appointed by the United States government to treat for peace, was present. The treacherous Santa Ana had made this only a pretext to gain time to strengthen the defences of the city. When the trick was discovered, Scott declared the armistice at an end, and advanced upon the city. Less than 4,000 Americans attacked Santa Ana with 14,000 Mexicans, Sept. 8, at Molino del Rey (the King's Mill), near Chapultepec. The combatants fought desperately and suffered dreadfully. The Mexicans left almost 1,000 dead on the field; the Americans lost 800. The lofty battlemented hill of Chapultepec was doomed. It was the last place to be defended outside of the city. It was attacked by mortar and cannon shells and round-shot, Sept. 12, and the assault continued until the next day, when the American flag waved in triumph over its shattered castle. The Mexicans fled into the city, pursued by the Americans to the very gates.

That night Santa Ana and his troops, with the civil officers, fled from the city, and, at 4 A.M. the next day, a deputation from the municipal authorities waited upon Scott, begging him to spare the town and treat for peace. He would make no terms, but entered the city, Sept. 13, a conqueror; and from the grand plaza he proclaimed the conquest of the republic of Mexico. Santa Ana made some feeble efforts to regain lost power, but failed. He was defeated in two slight battles. Before the close of October he was stripped of every command, and fled for safety to the shores of the Gulf. The president of the Mexican Congress assumed provisional authority, and, on Feb. 2, 1848, that body concluded a treaty of peace with the United States commissioners at Guadalupe-Hidalgo. It was ratified by both governments, and, on July 4, 1848, President Polk proclaimed it. It stipulated the evacuation of Mexico by the American troops within three months; the payment of $3,000,000 in hand, and $12,000,000 in four annual instalments, by the United States to Mexico, for New Mexico and California, which had become territory of the United States by conquest, and, in addition, to assume debts due certain citizens of the United States from Mexico to the amount of $3,500,000. It also fixed boundaries and otherwise adjusted matters in dispute.

Unfaithful American citizens plotted schemes for the extinction of the Mexican Republic (see KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE). While the plots were fast ripening, the two governments successfully negotiated a treaty by which the boundary-line between the United States and Mexico was defined and fixed. The treaty was ratified early in 1854, and it was agreed that the decisions of the commissioners appointed under it to revise the boundary should be final. By that treaty the United States was to be released from all obligations imposed by the treaty of peace with Mexico in 1848, and, as a consideration for this release, and for the territory ceded by Mexico, the United States agreed to pay the latter $10,000,000—$7,000,000 on the ratification of the treaty, and the remainder as soon as the boundary-line should be established. These conditions were com-

plied with, and the peaceful relations between the two countries **have never** since been broken.

GENERAL SCOTT'S ENTRY INTO THE CITY OF MEXICO.

For documents relating to the war, see POLK, JAMES KNOX. See, also, the titles of the military and naval officers above mentioned, and of the scenes of battles. See CHAPULTEPEC, BATTLE OF; CHURUBUSCO, BATTLE OF.

Miami, FORT, erected near the present city of Fort Wayne, Ind., was garrisoned by Ensign Holmes and ten men. On the morning of May 27, 1763, he was informed that the fort at Detroit had been attacked, and he put his men on their guard. The same day an Indian woman came to Holmes, saying a squaw in a cabin 300 yards off was ill, and wished

him to bleed her. He went out, and was shot. The sergeant followed, and was made prisoner, when the rest of the garrison surrendered to the Indians who swarmed in the forest nearby. See PONTIAC.

Miami Indians, an Algonquian family that, when discovered by the French in 1658, were seated near Green Bay, Wis.; and their chief, having a body-guard, was treated with more reverence than was usual among the Northern Indians. The English and the Five Nations called them Twightwees. In 1683 they and their kindred (the Illinois) were attacked by the IROQUOIS INDIANS (*q. v.*), whom they drove back, though engaged at the same time in war with the fiery Sioux. Acting alternately as friends and foes of the French, they were ruthless, and were not trusted by Europeans. Some of them were with De Nonville in his expedition against the Five Nations in 1687; and they joined the Iroquois against the Hurons and opened intercourse with the English. In their wars with the French and the Sioux the Miamis lost heavily; and, finally, in 1721, they were mostly seated upon the St. Joseph and the Maumee, near Fort Wayne, Ind. Miami and Maumee are the same, the latter simply showing the French pronunciation of the word.

When the struggle for dominion began between the French and English the Miamis hesitated; and when the French power fell they would not allow the English to pass through their country for a while, and joined PONTIAC (*q. v.*) in his operations. During the Revolutionary War they were friends of the English; and when, in 1790, General Harmar was sent against them, they put 1,500 warriors in the field, with the famous Little Turtle at their head. They defeated Harmar, but were crushed by Wayne, and were parties to the treaty at Greenville in 1795. When Tecumseh conspired they refused to join him, but favored the British in the War of 1812. Since that time they have rapidly declined. In 1822 they numbered about 2,500; in 1899, the remnant on the Quapaw reservation, in the Indian Territory, was only ninety-two.

Miantonomoh, king of the Narragansets Indians; born in Rhode Island; nephew of CANONICUS and NINEGRET (*qq. v.*). As early as 1632 he visited Boston with his wife and stayed two nights. He went to church with the English. Governor Winthrop took Miantonomoh and his attendants to his home and made much of them. In 1637 he assisted the English in the war with the PEQUOD INDIANS (*q. v.*). At the beginning of 1638 he succeeded his uncle, Canonicus, as sachem or king of the Narragansets; and in March he granted lands on the island of Rhode Island to William Coddington and others to make a settlement. Entering into an agreement with Uncas, sachem of the Mohegans, not to make war upon each other without first appealing to the English, he fell under the suspicions of the latter, and was cited to appear before the governor and council at Boston in 1642. Nothing being found against him, he was dismissed with honor. It was the policy of the English to foment a rivalry between the Mohegans and Narragansets, and Uncas was induced to insult and injure Miantonomoh as much as it was in his power to do. When Uncas pressed hard upon Miantonomoh, the latter made war. The Narragansets were beaten and their sachem was made prisoner. Uncas conveyed him to the English at Hartford, where, by the advice and consent of the magistrates and elders of the Church, this uniform friend of the white people was put to death, in obedience to a policy that thus favored the Mohegans. His death left an indelible stain upon the Connecticut authorities. The names of Miantonomoh and Canonicus have been given to two vessels in the new navy of the United States, the first a double-turret monitor, the second a single-turret one.

Michie, PETER SMITH, military officer; born in Brechin, Scotland, March 24, 1839; came to the United States in boyhood; graduated at West Point and commissioned a first lieutenant of engineers in 1863. He was promoted captain on Nov. 23, 1865, and was appointed Professor of Natural and Experimental Philosophy in the United States Military Academy on Feb. 14, 1871, a post he held till his death. His publications include *Elements of Wave Motion Relating to Sound and Light; Life and Letters of Major-General Emory Upton; Personnel*

of Sea-Coast Defence; Elements of Analytical Mechanics; Elements of Hydro-Mechanics; and *Practical Astronomy.* He died in West Point, N. Y., Feb. 16, 1901.

Michigan, STATE OF, was discovered and settled by French missionaries and fur-traders. As early as 1610 the site of Detroit was visited by Frenchmen, and in 1641 some Jesuits reached the falls of St. Mary. The first European settlements within the present limits of Michigan were made there by the establishment of a mission by Father JACQUES MARQUETTE (*q. v.*) and others in 1668. Three years later Fort Mackinaw was established, and in 1701 Detroit was founded. Michigan made slow progress in population from that time until it was made a Territory

SEAL OF THE STATE OF MICHIGAN.

of the United States. It came into possession of the English by the treaty of 1763; suffered from the conspiracy of PONTIAC (*q. v.*); and it was some time after the treaty of peace, in 1783, before the British gave up the territory. The Americans did not take possession until 1796. At first it was a part of the Northwest Territory, and afterwards it formed a part of the Territory of Indiana. It was erected into an independent Territory in 1805, with WILLIAM HULL (*q. v.*) as its first governor. In August, 1812, it fell into the hands of the British (see DETROIT), and remained so until the fall of 1813, when General Harrison reconquered it (see THAMES, BATTLE OF THE). In consequence of alarming despatches from Hull, in Detroit, in July, 1812, a force to support him was organized at Georgetown, Ky.; but before it had crossed the Ohio news of the surrender at Detroit reached them. That event stirred the patriotic zeal of the whole Western country, and the greatest warlike enthusiasm prevailed. Volunteers gathered under local leaders in every direction. Companies were formed and equipped in a single day, and were ready to march the next. They passed over the Ohio from Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and Virginia; and the governor of Ohio sent forward 2,000 men under General Tupper for the recovery of Michigan. General Harrison was appointed commander-in-chief of the Army of the Northwest. For several weeks volunteers found employment in driving the hostile Indians from post to post, in Ohio and Indiana, on the borders of the extreme western settlements. They desolated their villages and plantations, after the manner of Sullivan in 1779, and thereby incurred the fiercest indignation of the tribes.

Harrison took steps early to relieve the frontier posts — Fort Harrison, on the Wabash; Fort Wayne, at the head of the Maumee; Fort Defiance, at the junction of the Auglaize and Maumee; and Fort Deposit. At Vincennes General Hopkins had assembled about 4,000 mounted Kentucky militia to chastise the Indians on the borders of Illinois. They penetrated the Indian country beyond the Wabash; but, becoming alarmed, returned to Vincennes, and left the honors of the campaign to be gathered by Ninian Edwards, governor of the Territory of Illinois, who had advanced up the Illinois River with about 400 men to co-operate with Hopkins. He succeeded in destroying several Indian villages above Peoria. Harrison, meanwhile, was busily employed in pushing forward provisions to forts towards the lake, whence his troops were to march for concentration at the rapids of the Maumee, where another depot was to be established.

It was a miserable country to pass over —swampy, wooded, and made almost impassable by heavy rains. The troops became discontented and mutinous. Orders given to Tupper's division to advance to the Maumee Rapids were not, or could not be, obeyed; it fell back to Urbana.

Harrison had been very anxious to retake Detroit before winter; but the nature of the country compelled him to wait for the freezing of the swamps. Another expedition, under Hopkins, marched up the Wabash to Tippecanoe, in November, 1812; but the approach of winter and insufficient clothing of his troops compelled him to return to Vincennes after destroying one or two Indian villages. So ended in failure the effort to recover Michigan in the autumn of 1812. To this end Harrison had labored incessantly all through the months of October, November, and December.

The lands of Michigan were first brought into market for public sale in 1818, and from that time it dates its prosperity. The Territory was authorized in 1819 to send a delegate to Congress, and in the election the right of suffrage was extended to all taxable citizens. Afterwards the Indians made important territorial concessions, and in 1836 all the lower peninsula and part of the upper were freed from Indian titles. The same year Wisconsin Territory was formed from the western portion of Michigan. The legislative power of Michigan was vested in the governor and judges until 1823, when Congress transferred it to a council of nine persons, selected by the President of the United States from eighteen chosen by the citizens. The council was increased to thirteen in 1825; but two years later the citizens were allowed to elect the councillors without the interference of the President or Congress. In 1835–36 there was a territorial dispute between Ohio and Michigan that, at one time, threatened civil war; but it was settled by Congress admitting the latter into the Union as a State, on condition that it should relinquish its claim to the disputed territory and accept in its stead the upper peninsula. In January, 1837, Michigan was admitted. In 1847 the seat of government was removed from Detroit to Lansing. In 1850 a new constitution was adopted, which, with subsequent amendments, is now in force. This State took a decided stand for the Union in the anxious days of 1860. Its legislature met at the beginning of January, 1861, when its retiring governor (Moses Wisner) denounced the President of the United States as a partisan, and the Democratic party as cause of the alarm, resentment, and discontent in the South, by persistent misrepresentations of the principles and intentions of the Republican party. He declared the personal liberty act of his State to be right. "Let it stand," he said; "this is no time for timid and vacillating counsels while the cry of treason is ringing in our ears." The new governor (Austin Blair), who was inaugurated Jan. 3, took substantially the same ground. He recommended the legislature to take action for the support of the national government, and they responded by passing resolutions, Feb. 2, pledging to that government all the military power and material resources of the State. They expressed an unwillingness "to make compromises with traitors," and refused to send delegates to the PEACE CONGRESS (*q. v.*). The best men of the State, serving in the Union army, redeemed this pledge. Michigan furnished to the National army, during the Civil War, 90,747 soldiers, of which number 14,823 perished. The expenditures of the State for carrying on the war were $3,784,408; by counties, cities, and townships for the same purpose, $10,173,336; and for the relief of soldiers' families by counties, $3,591,248, or a total of nearly $17,600,000. Population in 1890, 2,093,889; in 1900, 2,420,982. See UNITED STATES, MICHIGAN, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Name.	Term.
William Hull	1805 to 1813
Lewis Cass	1814 " 1831
George B. Porter	1831 " 1834
Steven T. Mason	1834 " 1835

STATE GOVERNORS.

Steven T. Mason	1836 to 1840
William Woodbridge	1840 " 1841
James W. Gordon	1841
John S. Barry	1842 to 1846
Alpheus Felch	1846 " 1847
William L. Greenley	1847
Epaphroditus Ransom	1848 to 1850
John S. Barry	1850 " 1852
Robert McClelland	1852 " 1853
Andrew Parsons	1853 " 1855
Kingsley S. Bingham	1855 " 1859
Moses Wisner	1859 " 1861
Austin Blair	1861 " 1865
Henry H. Crapo	1865 " 1869
Henry P. Baldwin	1869 " 1873
John J. Bagley	1873 " 1877
Charles M. Crosswell	1877 " 1881
David H. Jerome	1881 " 1883
Josiah W. Begole	1883 " 1885

STATE GOVERNORS—*Continued.*

Name.	Term.
Russell A. Alger	1885 to 1887
Cyrus G. Luce	1887 " 1891
Edwin B. Winans	1891 " 1893
John T. Rich	1893 " 1896
Hazen S. Pingree	1896 " 1900
Aaron T. Bliss	1900 " 1904
Frederick M. Warner	1904 " 1908

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Lucius Lyon	24th to 25th	1837 to 1839
John Norvell	24th " 26th	1837 " 1841
Augustus S. Porter	26th " 28th	1839 " 1845
William Woodbridge	27th " 29th	1841 " 1847
Lewis Cass	29th " 30th	1845 " 1848
Thomas Fitzgerald	30th	1849
Alpheus Felch	30th to 32d	1847 to 1853
Lewis Cass	31st " 34th	1851 " 1857
Charles E. Stuart	33d " 35th	1853 " 1859
Zachariah Chandler	35th " 43d	1857 " 1875
Kinsley S. Bingham	36th	1859 " 1861
Jacob M. Howard	37th to 41st	1862 " 1871
Thomas W. Ferry	42d	1871
Isaac P. Christiancy	44th " 46th	1875 to 1879
Zachariah Chandler	46th	1879
Henry P. Baldwin	46th	1879 to 1881
Omar D. Conger	47th to 50th	1881 " 1887
Thomas W. Palmer	48th " 51st	1883 " 1889
Francis B. Stockbridge	50th " 53d	1887 " 1894
James McMillan	51st " 57th	1889 " 1903
John Patton, Jr.	53d " 54th	1894 " 1895
Julius C. Burrows	54th " ——	1895 " ——
Russell A. Alger	58th " ——	1903 " ——

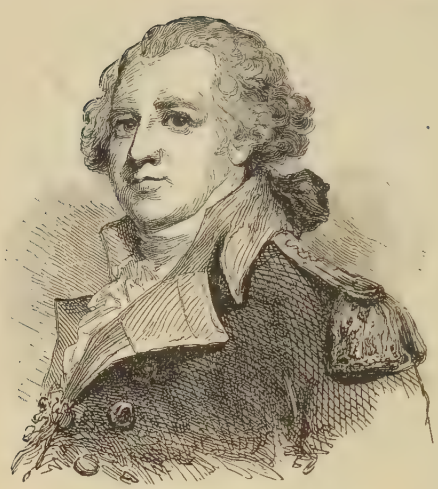
Micmac Indians, the most easterly family of the Algonquian nation. They spread over New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, and were called by the neighboring tribes "Salt-water Indians," because they also inhabited the seacoasts. They carried on wars with the Little Esquimaux, north of the St. Lawrence, at a very early period; and their chief business, in peace, was fishing. When De Monts attempted settlements in that region and in Canada, the Micmacs numbered fully 3,000. The French established missions among them, and secured their friendship; and they were a source of great annoyance to the English in their wars in that region. The Micmacs plundered English vessels in the Bay of Fundy, and captured eighteen English vessels in 1722. They actually cruised in their prizes and attacked British armed vessels. From 1724 to 1760 they were the active enemies of the English in Nova Scotia; but at the latter date, Canada having been captured by the English, the Richibucto Micmacs, the most formidable of the tribe, laid down their arms and submitted to English rule. The Micmacs were sun-worshippers.

Middle Creek, Ky., Battle of, fought Jan. 10, 1862, in the valley of the Big Sandy. Gen. James A. Garfield, with about 1,800 men, defeated Gen. Humphrey Marshall, commanding 2,500 Confederates.

Middleton, Arthur, signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Middleton Place, on the Ashley River, S. C., June 26, 1742; was educated at Harrow and Westminster schools, England, graduating at Cambridge University in 1764. After his marriage he became a planter, and in politics a leader of the patriots, and a most efficient member of the council of safety. In 1776 he helped to frame the State constitution, and was sent to Congress, where he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence. In 1779 he took up arms in defence of Charleston, and was made a prisoner when it fell, in 1780, when his estate was sequestered and he was sent a prisoner, first to St. Augustine, and then to the prison-ship *Jersey*. In 1781 he was exchanged, and was a member of Congress from 1781 to 1783. He was a skilful stenographer, and took notes of the debates in which he was engaged. Mr. Middleton wrote some effective political essays over the signature of Andrew Marvel. He died on Goose Creek, S. C., Jan. 1, 1787. His father, Henry Middleton, was president of Congress in 1775; and his grandfather, Arthur, who was born at Twickenham, England, was often in public affairs in South Carolina, as early as 1712. His influence was always on the side of the people. He was governor of the colony (1725–31), and was afterwards in the council.

Middleton, Henry, author; born in Paris, France, March 16, 1797; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1815; admitted to the bar in 1822, but never practised. His publications include *The Government and the Currency; Economical Causes of Slavery in the United States and Obstacles to Abolition; Prospects of Disunion,* etc. He died in Washington, D. C., March 15, 1876.

Mifflin, Thomas, military officer; born of Quaker parents, in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1744; was educated in the Philadelphia College; visited Europe in 1765, and, on his return, became a merchant. Having served in the legislature of Pennsylvania,



THOMAS MIFFLIN.

he was chosen a member of the first Continental Congress in 1774; was appointed major of one of the first regiments raised in Philadelphia, and accompanied Washington as aide-de-camp to Cambridge in the summer of 1775. All through the Revolutionary War Mifflin was a faithful and efficient officer, rising to the rank of major-general in 1777. He was eloquent in speech, and was efficient in rousing his countrymen to action when necessary. In this way, traversing Pennsylvania, he caused large numbers of its citizens to flock to the standard of Washington before the attack on the enemy at Trenton. He was quartermaster-general, and, in 1777, was a member of the board of war. Mifflin was one of "Conway's Cabal," a conspiracy to put Gates in the place of Washington. Late in 1782 he was elected to Congress, and was president of that body in the last month of that year, when Washington resigned his commission into their hands. General Mifflin was a delegate to the convention that framed the national Constitution (1787), and was president of the supreme executive council of Pennsylvania (1788–90). He was also president of the convention that framed his State constitution (1790), and was governor of the State from 1791 to 1800. He was very efficient in quelling the Whiskey Insurrection in 1794. He died in Lancaster, Pa., Jan. 20, 1800.

Mifflin, Fort. The firing of the first gun upon Fort Mercer (*q. v.*) was the signal for British vessels to approach and attack Fort Mifflin, opposite. They had made their way through the obstructions near Billingsport. The *Augusta*, ship-of-war, and other armed vessels, came up the river, but were kept at bay by American galleys and floating batteries. The attack was deferred until the morning after (Oct. 23, 1777) the assault on Fort Mercer. A heavy cannonade was brought to bear on

FORT MIFFLIN—DESTRUCTION OF THE AUGUSTA.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL NELSON A. MILES

the British fleet by the American flotilla, and at the same time an equally heavy fire was kept up by the royal vessels on Fort Mifflin, the little garrison of which was commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, of Maryland. Smith made a gallant defence. A hot shot from the fort set fire to the *Augusta*, and she blew up. After an engagement of several hours, the British fleet retired, and the Americans remained masters of the Delaware a short time longer. Finally the British erected batteries on Province Island, that commanded Fort Mifflin, and brought up a large floating battery, and four 64-gun ships and two 40-gun ships to attack the fort. On Nov. 10 the British opened their batteries on land and water. Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, with his garrison of 300 men, sustained the siege six consecutive days. When every gun was dismounted, and the fort was almost a ruin, the garrison left in the night (Nov. 16), after firing the remains of the barracks, and escaped to Fort Mercer, which Colonel Greene, despairing of relief, evacuated Nov. 20. During the siege of Fort Mifflin, about 250 men of the garrison were killed and wounded. The British loss is not known. See MERCER, FORT.

Milan Decree. See BERLIN DECREE, THE; EMBARGO ACTS; ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

Milburn, WILLIAM HENRY, clergyman; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 26, 1823; was educated in Philadelphia, Pa., Jacksonville, Ill., and at Illinois College. When five years old he lost the sight of one eye by an accident, and subsequently became totally blind. He was licensed as a Methodist preacher in Illinois in 1843, and travelled about 1,500,000 miles in America and Europe. He afterwards lectured and preached in the United States, Canada, and Europe. After 1845 he was chaplain of each house of Congress several times. His publications include *Rifle, Axe, and Saddle-Bags; Ten Years of Preacher Life; Lance, Cross, and Canoe;* etc. He died in Santa Barbara, Cal., April 10, 1903.

Miles, NELSON APPLETON, military officer; born in Westminster, Mass., Aug. 8, 1839; was engaged in mercantile business in Boston till the outbreak of the Civil War; entered the volunteer army as a captain in the 22d Massachusetts Infantry, Sept. 9, 1861; promoted lieutenant-colonel 61st New York Infantry, May 31, 1862, and colonel, Sept. 30 following; brigadier-general, May 12, 1864; major-general, Oct. 21, 1865; and was mustered out of the volunteers, Sept. 1, 1866. On July 28, 1866, he was commissioned colonel of the 40th United States Infantry; Dec. 15, 1880, promoted brigadier-general; April 5, 1890, major-general; June 6, 1900, lieutenant-general, under an act of Congress of that date; Feb. 5, 1901, was appointed lieutenant-general under the law reorganizing the army; and Aug. 8, 1903 was retired. During the Civil War he distinguished himself at Fair Oaks (wounded), Malvern Hill, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville (wounded), Ream's Station, and in the operations against Richmond; and after the war conducted a number of campaigns against the hostile Indians, notably against the Apaches under Geronimo and Natchez, whose surrender he forced. He represented the army at the seat of the war between Turkey and Greece, and also at the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria in 1897. In the war against Spain in 1898 he visited Cuba and commanded the expedition to PORTO RICO (*q. v.*).

Milet, PIERRE. See JESUIT MISSIONS.

Military Academy, UNITED STATES, a government institution at West Point, N. Y.; established by act of Congress, March 16, 1802, for the purpose of educating and training young men in the theory and practice of military science, to become officers in the United States army. Attempts had been made by Washington in 1793 and 1796 to have Congress establish an institution for this purpose. Cadets are appointed, one from each congressional district, Territory, and the District of Columbia, by the Secretary of War, at the request of the Representative or Delegate in Congress of the district or Territory in which the applicant is an actual resident. There are also thirty appointments at large, specially conferred by the President of the United States. In 1901 there were three extra cadets at the Academy, who were authorized by Congress to enter it at their own expense, from Venezuela, Costa Rica, and Ecuador. The Representative may nominate a legally qualified second candidate, to

be designated the alternate. The alternate will receive from the War Department a letter of appointment, and will be examined with the regular appointee, and if duly qualified will be admitted to the Academy, in the event of the failure of the principal to pass the prescribed preliminary examinations. Appointees to the Military Academy must be between seventeen and twenty-two years of age, free from any infirmity which may render them unfit for military service, and able to pass a careful examination in reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history of the United States.

ACADEMIC BUILDINGS, WEST POINT.

The course of instruction requires four years, and is largely mathematical and professional. The principal subjects taught are mathematics, French, drawing, drill regulations of all arms of the service, natural and experimental philosophy, chemistry, chemical physics, mineralogy, geology, and electricity, history, international, constitutional, and military law, Spanish, civil and military engineering, art and science of war, and ordnance and gunnery. The discipline is very strict, and the enforcement of penalties for offences is inflexible rather than severe. Examinations are held in each January and June, and cadets deficient in either conduct or studies are discharged. From about the middle of June to the end of August cadets live in camp, engaged only in military duties and receiving practical military instructions. Cadets are allowed but one leave of absence during the course, and this is granted at the expiration of the first two years. The pay of a cadet is $540 per year. The number of students at the academy is usually about 425. An annual board of visitors is appointed, seven by the President of the United States, two by the president of the Senate, and three by the speaker of the House of Representatives. They visit the academy in June, and are present at the concluding exercises of the graduating class of the year. The superintendent in 1905 was Col. Albert L. Mills, U. S. A. (*q. v.*), and the military and academic staff consisted of seventy-nine persons.

Upon graduation, the class is divided by the academic board into three sections of varying and unequal numbers,

according to class rank; the highest, usually very small, is recommended for appointment in any corps of the army; the second in any corps, excepting the engineers; and the third in any corps, excepting engineers and artillery. Commissions for the rank of second lieutenant are then conferred by the President, in accordance with these recommendations. See LEAVENWORTH, FORT; MONROE, FORT; RILEY, FORT; and WILLETT'S POINT.

Military Departments. See ARMY.

Military, or Martial, Law is built on no settled principle, but is arbitrary, and, in truth, no law; but sometimes indulged, rather than allowed, as law.—*Sir Matthew Hale.* See HABEAS CORPUS; MILLIGAN, CASE OF.

Military Order of Foreign Wars, an organization founded in New York City, Dec. 27, 1894, by the veterans and descendants of veterans of one or more of the five wars waged between the United States and foreign powers. The purpose of this organization is "to perpetuate the names and memory of brave and loyal men who took part in establishing and maintaining the principles of the government," and "to preserve records and documents relating to said wars, and to celebrate the anniversaries of historic events connected therewith." A commandery may be established in any State. A national commandery was instituted March 11, 1896, with the following officers: Commander-general, Maj.-Gen. Alexander S. Webb, U. S. A.; secretary-general, James H. Morgan, New York City; treasurer-general, Edward S. Sayres; registrar-general, Rev. Henry N. Wayne; historian-general, Capt. Samuel E. Cross, U. S. V.; recording-general, Charles D. Walcott.

Military Order of the Loyal Legion, an organization founded by officers and ex-officers of the army, navy, and marine corps of the United States, who were engaged in the Civil War of 1861–65. Only the eldest direct male lineal descendant, according to the rules of primogeniture, is eligible to membership. There are in all twenty-one commanderies, one representing the District of Columbia, and each of the others representing a State. In 1900 the total membership was 9,043. The following were officers: Commander-in-chief, Lieut.-Gen. John M. Schofield; senior vice-commander-in-chief Acting Volunteer Lieut. Charles P. Clark; junior vice-commander-in-chief, Brig.-Gen. Henry C. Merriam; recorder-in-chief, Brev. Lieut.-Col. John P. Nicholson; registrar-in-chief Brev. Maj. William P. Huxford; treasurer-in-chief, Paymaster George De F. Barton; chancellor-in-chief, Brev. Brig.-Gen. William L. James; chaplain-in-chief, Brev. Maj. Henry S. Burrage.

Militia, UNITED STATES. The pressure of wars with the Indians in the Northwest forced Congress to undertake the organization of the militia throughout the Union. This was a difficult task, for at once there was a conflicting claim for authority in the matter between the national and State governments. The President called the attention of Congress to the subject on Aug. 7, 1789. Immediate action was taken. The matter was referred to a committee, but they did not report that session, and a new committee was appointed Jan. 15, 1790. A plan was arranged by General Knox, Secretary of War. A bill was offered on July 1, 1790, but there were no further proceedings on the subject during that session. Soon after the assembling of the third session of the first Congress, another committee was appointed (Dec. 10, 1790) by the House of Representatives, and a bill reported, but no result was reached at that session. The President, in his message at the opening of the second Congress, called attention to it, and another committee was appointed (Oct. 31, 1791). A bill for the organization of the militia passed the House of Representatives, and the Senate made amendments which the House would not agree to. A committee of conference was appointed, and the bill was passed March 27, 1792. Some amendments were made the next session, and the militia system then adopted remained, with very little alteration, until the breaking out of the Civil War in 1861.

It provided for a geographical arrangement of the militia by the State legislatures into companies, battalions, regiments, brigades, and divisions; each company to consist of sixty-four men, each battalion of five companies, each regiment of two battalions, and each brigade of four regiments. Each company, battalion, regi-

ment, and division was officered as now, except that the commander of a regiment held the rank of lieutenant-colonel. This arrangement was long perpetuated in the regular army, as well as in the militia. The rank of colonel, however, had been established in both services. There was provision made for one company of light troops to each battalion, and at least one company of artillery and one of horse to each division, to be formed out of volunteers, and to be clad in uniform at their own expense. Each State was to appoint an adjutant-general for the general superintendence of the whole militia system. Every able-bodied male citizen between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, with certain exceptions, was to be enrolled in the militia by the captain of the company within whose bounds he might reside; such citizen to arm and equip himself and appear for exercise when called. This law simply adopted the system as it stood in each State. By another act it authorized the President, in case of invasion by any foreign nation or Indian tribe, or imminent danger thereof, or in case of insurrection in any State, application being made by its legislature or its executive, to call forth the militia of the State or States most convenient to the scene of action. Whenever there should be an invasion, or insurrection, or combination to resist the laws too strong to be suppressed by the civil authorities, the President was authorized to call out the

TABLE SHOWING THE CONDITION OF THE STATE MILITIA ON DEC. 1, 1900.

States and Territories.	Official Designation of State Troops.	Generals and Gen'l Staff.	Cavalry.	Artillery.	Infantry.	Total Number Authorized.	Total Liable to Military Service.	State Appropriations.
Alabama	Alabama State Troops	24	191	158	1,949	7,788	170,000	‡
Alaska	No organized militia	6	...	...	163	†	12,000	§
Arizona	National Guard of Arizona	17	...	...	382	898	17,200	$4,710
Arkansas	Arkansas State Guard	63	99	140	1,630	†	262,900	‡
California	National Guard of California	55	258	...	2,991	6,471	250,000	154,247
Colorado	National Guard of Colorado	18	181	45	897	†	100,000	37,000
Connecticut	National Guard of Connecticut	16	73	37	2,168	4,108	107,000	138,450
Delaware	National Guard of Delaware	17	...	...	449	750	29,000	5,000
District of Columbia	National Guard District of Columbia	14	...	43	1,213	3,320	50,000	31,325
Florida	Florida State Troops	91	...	...	1,167	1,458	85,000	16,000
Georgia	Georgia Volunteers	15	390	142	3,416	12,344	290,000	25,000
Guam	Guam Volunteers	..	...	...	42	....	1,200	‡
Hawaii	Hawaiian National Guard	7	93	...	790	2,000	4,000	‡
Idaho	Idaho National Guard	6	...	...	566	21,000	27,000	1,000
Illinois	Illinois National Guard	103	365	200	6,535	10,626	800,000	205,000
Indiana	Indiana Legion	13	...	121	739	4,601	550,000	45,000
Indian Territory	Indian Territory Militia*	..	...	...	....	†	5,000	§
Iowa	Iowa National Guard	26	41	...	1,806	3,894	350,000	50,200
Kansas	Kansas National Guard	6	...	93	1,090	2,131	110,000	29,150
Kentucky	Kentucky National Guard	7	...	...	1,762	3,500	415,000	7,000
Louisiana	Louisiana State National Guard	16	39	678	780	†	140,000	21,000
Maine	National Guard State of Maine	6	...	...	1,952	2,051	110,000	33,000
Maryland	Maryland National Guard	15	71	...	1,806	2,700	210,000	50,000
Massachusetts	Massachusetts Volunteer Militia	38	246	1,027	3,874	6,592	460,000	323,900
Michigan	Michigan National Guard	8	...	...	2,800	3,429	280,000	90,000
Minnesota	National Guard of Minnesota	20	...	138	2,322	3,729	200,000	51,000
Mississippi	Mississippi National Guard	28	95	279	928	1,800	235,000	6,000
Missouri	National Guard of Missouri	4	...	...	2,444	3,000	415,000	10,000
Montana	National Guard of Montana	9	...	60	....	1,124	34,000	10,000
Nebraska	Nebraska National Guard	1	63	63	950	2,113	100,000	15,000
Nevada	Nevada National Guard	1	...	...	154	†	5,500	2,000
New Hampshire	New Hampshire National Guard	15	66	73	1,267	1,699	35,000	30,000
New Jersey	National Guard of New Jersey	43	130	140	3,397	5,127	390,000	174,000
New Mexico	National Guard of New Mexico	3	115	11	274	1,126	40,000	31,325
New York	National Guard State of New York	69	343	370	13,448	18,000	250,000	575,000
North Carolina	North Carolina National Guard	17	...	23	1,618	5,000	250,000	6,000
North Dakota	North Dakota National Guard	9	51	56	557	933	37,000	11,080
Ohio	Ohio National Guard	21	49	200	4,171	9,486	650,000	191,000
Oklahoma	Oklahoma National Guard	5	...	...	498	2,164	62,000	§
Oregon	Oregon National Guard	7	47	74	925	1,585	62,000	30,000
Pennsylvania	National Guard Pennsylvania	178	240	284	9,334	11,103	900,000	350,000
Porto Rico	Porto Rico Battalion	..	...	...	600	1,000	170,000	‡
Rhode Island	Brigade of Rhode Island Militia	19	111	98	786	1,030	69,000	37,500
Samoa	Samoan Volunteers	..	...	...	68	....	400	‡
South Carolina	South Carolina Volunteer State Troops	9	865	96	2,058	5,000	110,000	8,000
South Dakota	South Dakota National Guard	3	46	...	52	1,000	53,000	6,700
Tennessee	National Guard State of Tennessee	9	...	...	1,480	3,000	165,000	14,000
Texas	Texas Volunteer Guard	50	191	210	2,793	†	350,000	5,000
Utah	National Guard of Utah	15	21	...	286	1,000	40,000	10,000
Vermont	National Guard of Vermont	18	...	76	617	†	45,000	9,500
Virginia	Virginia Volunteers	2	50	190	805	5,176	300,000	11,200
Washington	National Guard of Washington	11	73	54	669	1,877	96,000	‡
West Virginia	West Virginia National Guard	20	20	...	945	8,359	130,000	16,700
Wisconsin	Wisconsin National Guard	8	67	69	2,692	3,122	400,000	100,000
Wyoming	Wyoming National Guard	..	...	...	348	1,078	180,000	5,000
Grand aggregates		911	4,576	5,459	96,899	199,694	11,448,300	$3,382,407

The total organized force is 105,845.

* None organized. † No limit. ‡ Unknown. § None.

militia in such numbers as he might deem necessary.

The militia of the States and Territories constitute primarily an armed local constabulary that may be called out by the governor as commander-in-chief on the request of a sheriff or other local authority to aid in the enforcement of law, preserve order, etc. In the Civil War as well as that against Spain the bulk of the volunteer army of the United States was drawn from the militia of the States, and in their more extended service these soldiers lose for the time being their State organization and become subject wholly to the orders of the President.

The table on opposite page, compiled by Capt. W. R. Hamilton, U. S. A., shows the condition of the State militia on Dec. 1, 1900.

Mill Spring, Battle of. At Beech Grove and Mill Spring, Ky., there were gathered by the middle of January, 1862, about 10,000 effective Confederate soldiers, with twenty pieces of artillery, under the command of General Crittenden. Gen. George H. Thomas was sent to attack them, and, if successful, to push over the Cumberland Mountains and liberate the east Tennesseeans from Confederate rule. He divided his forces, giving a smaller number to the command of General Schoepf, and leading the remainder himself. When he was within 10 miles of the Confederate camp the insurgents came out to meet him. At early dawn (Jan. 19) the Confederates, 5,000 strong, led by Zollicoffer, met the Union pickets—Woolford's cavalry. A severe battle was soon afterwards begun on the side of the Nationals by the Kentucky and Ohio regiments and Captain Kinney's battery. It was becoming very warm, when Col. R. L. McCook came up with Ohio and Minnesota troops, also a Tennessee brigade and a section of artillery. For a time it was doubtful which side would prevail. They were hotly contesting the possession of a commanding hill when Zollicoffer was killed at the head of his column. General Crittenden immediately took his place, and the struggle for the hill continued about two hours. A galling fire from Minnesota troops and a charge of Ohio troops with bayonets compelled the Confederates to give way and retreat towards their camp at Beech Grove. They were hard pressed by the Nationals, who had gained a position where their great guns commanded the Confederate works. The next morning the Confederates were gone. The beleaguered troops had escaped silently across the river, under cover of darkness, abandoning everything in their camp and destroying the vessels that carried them over the stream. The Nationals lost 247 men, of whom thirty-nine were killed; the Confederates lost 349, of whom 192 were killed and eighty-nine were made prisoners.

Millard, Joseph Hopkins, legislator; born in Hamilton, Canada, in April, 1836; removed to Omaha in 1856, where he engaged in banking. He was the founder and president of the Omaha National Bank; mayor of Omaha for one term; government director of the Union Pacific railroad for six years and director for seven years; and a Republican United States Senator in 1901–07.

Milledge, John, statesman; born in Savannah, Ga., in 1757. He was active in civil and military affairs in Georgia during the Revolutionary War, and in 1780 was appointed attorney-general of the State. From 1792 to 1802 he was a member of Congress, excepting one term, and from 1802 to 1806 was governor of the State. He founded the University of Georgia, and the legislature gave his name to the State capital. He died in Sand Hills, Ga., Feb. 9, 1818.

Miller, Adam, clergyman; born in Maryland in 1810; ordained a Methodist minister in 1830; became a physician in 1843. In connection with Dr. William Nast (*q. v.*) he founded the German branch of the Methodist Church. At the time of his death he was the oldest physician in the United States, with one exception. He died in Chicago, July 29, 1901.

Miller, Cincinnatus Heine (better known as Joaquin Miller), author; born in Wabash district, Ind., Nov. 10, 1841; went with his parents to Oregon in 1850; subsequently engaged in mining in California, and studied law. In 1863 he edited the *Democratic Register*, in Eugene, Ore., a weekly paper which was accused of disloyalty and suppressed; in 1863–66 practised law in Canton City, Ore.; and

in 1866–70 was judge of Grant county, Ore. Later he went to London, where he published his first book of poems. Returning to the United States he spent several years in newspaper work in Washington. Since 1887 he has resided in Oakland, Cal. In 1897–98 he was correspondent for the New York *Journal* in the Klondike. His publications include *Songs of the Sierras; Songs of the Sunland; The Ship of the Desert; Life Among the Modocs; The One Fair Woman; Shadows of Shasta; Songs of Far-Away Lands; '49, or the Gold-Seekers of the Sierras; The Life of Christ*, etc. He has also written plays, including *The Silent Man; '49; the Danites; Tally-Ho*, etc.

Miller, JAMES, military officer; born in Peterboro, N. H., April 25, 1776; entered the army as major in 1808, and was lieutenant-colonel and leader of the Americans in the battle at Brownstown in 1812. He was distinguished in events on the

JAMES MILLER.

Niagara frontier, especially in the battle at Niagara Falls, or Lundy's Lane, in July, 1814. For his services there he was brevetted brigadier-general, and received from Congress a gold medal. He was governor of Arkansas from 1819 to 1825, and collector of the port of Salem from 1825 to 1849. He died in Temple, N. H., July 7, 1851.

Miller, JOAQUIN. See MILLER, CINCINNATUS HEINE.

Miller, JOSEPH NELSON, naval officer; born in Ohio, Nov. 22, 1836; entered the navy in 1851; was promoted passed midshipman in 1856; master in 1858; lieutenant in 1860; lieutenant-commander in 1862; commander in 1870; captain in 1881; commodore in 1894; and rear-admiral, March 21, 1897; and was retired, Nov. 22, 1898. During the Civil War he served with distinction as executive officer of the iron-clad *Passaic* in the attack upon Fort McAllister and Fort Sumter, and on the *Monadnock* in the two engagements with Fort Fisher. In 1875, while commander of the *Tuscarora*, he made deep-sea soundings in the Pacific Ocean between the Hawaiian and Fiji Islands. In 1897, with the *Brooklyn*, he represented the United States at Queen Victoria's jubilee; in August of the same year was made commander of the Pacific station; and in August, 1898, he raised and saluted the American flag at Honolulu, the last act in the annexation of Hawaii to the United States. During the war with Spain he organized the naval reserves on the Pacific coast.

Miller, SAMUEL, LL.D., theologian; born in Dover, Del., Oct. 31, 1769; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1789; minister of a Presbyterian church in New York City from 1793 to 1813, and was noted as a political and theological writer. From 1813 to 1849 he was Professor of Ecclesiastical History and Church Government in the Theological Seminary at Princeton. His published works are quite numerous. Dr. Miller was an early member of the American Philosophical Society. He died in Princeton, N. J., Jan. 7, 1850.

Miller, SAMUEL FREEMAN, jurist; born in Richmond, Ky., April 5, 1816; graduated at Transylvania University in 1838; removed to Iowa in 1850; appointed associate justice of the United States Supreme Court by President Lincoln in

1862. He died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 13, 1890.

Miller, WALTER, philologist; born in Ashland county, O., May 5, 1864; graduated at the University of Michigan in 1884, and studied in the University of Leipsic in 1884–85 and 1889–91. He was instructor of Latin and Sanskrit in 1887–88 and acting assistant professor in 1888–89. In 1892 he was called to the chair of Classical Philology in the Stanford University. He is the author of *Excavations upon the Akropolis at Athens; The Theatre of Thoricus; Latin Prose Composition for College Use; Pronunciation of Greek and Latin Proper Names; History of the Akropolis of Athens; Johannes Overbeck; Scientific Names of Latin and Greek Derivation; The Roman Religion; Steller's Great Sea Beasts,* etc.

Miller, WILLIAM, founder of the sect of MILLERITES, or ADVENTISTS (*q. v.*); born in Pittsfield, Mass., Feb. 5, 1782; was mainly self-taught during his leisure moments while working on a farm. At the beginning of the War of 1812 he was a recruiting officer, and later a captain in the army. During his early manhood he read and advocated the teachings of Voltaire, Thomas Paine, and Hume. Subsequently he was converted to Christianity, and joined a Baptist church. He became a deep student of the Old Testament prophecies, which convinced him that Christ would reappear to judge the world between the years 1831 and 1844. Churches were thrown open to him everywhere, and multitudes flocked to hear his interpretation of prophecy. When the time set by Father Miller, as he was popularly called, for the second advent of Christ had expired, the majority of his followers, about 50,000, did not give up their faith in the speedy coming of the Saviour. On April 25, 1845, a convention was called, which agreed upon a declaration of faith and the name Adventists. Father Miller's *Dream of the Last Day* was widely circulated. He died in Low Hampton, N. Y., Dec. 20, 1849.

Miller, WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, lawyer; born in Augusta, N. Y., Sept. 6, 1840; spent his early life on a farm; and graduated at Hamilton College in 1861. He settled in Maumee City, O., where he taught school a year; then entered the Union army; and after his discharge was admitted to the bar and practised law at Fort Wayne, Ind., in 1866–74. In the latter year he moved to Indianapolis and became a law partner of BENJAMIN HARRISON (*q. v.*). He was Attorney-General of the United States (1889–93) in President Harrison's cabinet, and afterwards resumed practice in Indianapolis.

Millet, FRANCIS DAVIS, artist; born in Mattapoisett, Mass., Nov. 3, 1846; graduated at Harvard College in 1869; studied at the Royal Academy of Fine Arts in Antwerp in 1871–72, was secretary of the Massachusetts Commission to the Vienna Exposition in 1873, and art correspondent for the London *Daily News,* the London *Graphic,* and the New York *Herald* during the Russo-Turkish war of 1877–78. In 1892–93 he was director of decorations and of functions at the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago, and in 1898 was art correspondent for the London *Times* and *Harper's Weekly* at Manila, Philippine Islands. He designed the costumes for the representation of the *Oedipus Tyrannus* of Sophocles by Harvard students in 1880; has executed a large amount of decorative work; and received numerous foreign war medals.

Milligan, CASE OF. On Oct. 5, 1864, Lambdin P. Milligan, while at home in Indiana, was arrested, with others, for treasonable designs, by order of Gen. Alvin P. Hovey, commanding the military district of Indiana; on Oct. 21 brought before a military commission convened at Indianapolis by General Hovey, tried on certain charges and specifications, found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged, Friday, May 19, 1865. The proceedings of the military commission closed in January, 1865. When the circuit court of the United States met at Indianapolis in January, 1865, the grand jury did not indict Milligan, who then petitioned the court to be brought before it and tried by jury or released. With the petition was filed the order appointing the commission, the charges, finding of the commission, with the order from the War Department reciting that the sentence was approved by the President, and directing that the sentence be carried out without delay. The judges differed on three questions: (1) Whether on the facts submitted a writ of

habeas corpus should be issued; (2) Whether Milligan ought to be discharged; (3) Whether the military commission had acted within its jurisdiction; and these were submitted to the Supreme Court of the United States. The first two questions were answered in the affirmative, the third in the negative, Justices Davis, Grier, Nelson, Clifford, and Fields holding that Congress had not the constitutional power to authorize such commission—that the Constitution forbids it, and is the supreme law of the land, in war as in peace. Chief-Justice Chase, supported by Justices Wayne, Swayne, and Miller, held that Congress has the power to authorize military commissions in time of war; but all concurred in the answers given to the three questions submitted, and Milligan was released. "The decision of the court overthrew the whole doctrine of military arrest and trial of private citizens in peaceful States."—Lalor's *Cyclopædia of Political Science*, vol. ii., p. 433. See HABEAS CORPUS.

Milliken's Bend, a locality in Louisiana, attacked by Confederates under Gen. H. McCulloch; repulsed June 6, 1863, by Union forces (mostly colored), aided by the gunboats *Choctaw* and *Lexington*. Union loss, killed and wounded, 404.

Mills, ALBERT LEOPOLD, military officer; born in New York City, May 7, 1854; graduated at the United States Military Academy, and was commissioned a second lieutenant in the 1st United States Cavalry, and selected as military instructor in 1879; Professor of Military Science and Tactics in the South Carolina Academy in 1886; promoted first lieutenant of 1st Cavalry in 1889; adjutant of 1st Cavalry in 1890–94; and promoted captain of the 6th Cavalry, Oct. 8, 1898. In the war with Spain (1898) he was appointed captain and assistant adjutant-general of volunteers May 12. He served on the frontier during the war against the Sioux Indians in 1890; was engaged in the Santiago campaign at Las Guasimas and Santiago City, in 1898, where he was wounded; was brevetted major and promoted lieutenant-colonel for gallantry; and was appointed superintendent of the United States Military Academy, Aug. 8, 1898. He is author of *Campaigns in 1862 in Virginia*.

Mills, ANSON, military officer; born in Boone county, Ind., Aug. 31, 1834; studied in the United States Military Academy in 1855–57; was surveyor of the commission to determine the boundary between New Mexico, Indian Territory, and Texas; served with distinction throughout the Civil War. When peace was declared he was assigned to frontier duty and participated in nearly all of the Indian wars. He was promoted brigadier-general, June 16, 1897, and was retired six days later. He invented the woven cartridge belt, also the loom by which it is made, which the government adopted for use in the army and navy.

Mills, CLARK, sculptor; born in Onondaga county, N. Y., Dec. 1, 1815; settled in Charleston, S. C., at an early age, and there discovered a method of taking a cast from a living face. In 1848 he completed the equestrian statue of Andrew Jackson in Washington, D. C.; later he made the colossal equestrian statue of George Washington in the same city; and in 1863 finished his statue of *Freedom*, which was placed above the dome of the Capitol. He died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 12, 1883.

Mills, HERBERT ELMER; born in Salem, N. H., Aug. 8, 1861; graduated at University of Rochester in 1883; appointed Professor of Economics in Vassar College in 1890. He is the author of *Practical Economical Problems; Labor Problem; The French Revolution in San Domingo*, etc.

Mills, ROBERT, architect; born in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 12, 1781; studied architecture under Benjamin H. Latrobe; was made United States architect in 1830; planned the construction of the United States Post-office, Patent Office, and Treasury buildings. He drew the original design of the Washington Monument, on which work was begun in 1848 on the site selected by Washington for a memorial of the Revolutionary War. His publications include *Statistics of South Carolina; The American Pharos, or Light-house Guide;* and *Guide to the National Executive Offices*. He died in Washington, D. C., March 3, 1855.

Mills, ROGER QUARLES, lawyer; born in Todd county, Va., March 30, 1832; became a lawyer in Corsicana, Tex.; was colonel of the 10th Texas Regiment in the Confederate army in the Civil War; and entered the national House of Representa-

tives in 1873 as a Democrat. Having given especial attention to revenue questions, he was appointed, in the Congress of 1887–89, chairman of the ways and means committee, and reported in 1888 the so-called Mills bill. This measure, prepared in the direction of tariff reform, passed the Democratic House and was defeated in the Republican Senate. Mr. Mills was defeated by Mr. Crisp in the contest for speaker in 1891, and was a United States Senator in 1892–99.

Mills, SAMUEL JOHN, clergyman; born in Torringford, Conn., April 21, 1783; graduated at Williams College in 1809; was the originator of the American Bible Society, founded in 1816; and was also instrumental in the formation of the AMERICAN COLONIZATION SOCIETY (*q. v.*). In behalf of the latter society he explored the western coast of Africa for a suitable site for a colony, in 1818, and died on his passage homeward, June 16, 1818.

Millspaugh, CHARLES FREDERIC, botanist; born in Ithaca, N. Y., June 20, 1854; graduated at New York Homœopathic Medical College in 1881; appointed Professor of Botany in West Virginia University in 1891; Professor of Medical Botany in the Chicago Homœopathic Medical College in 1897; lecturer on botany in the University of Chicago in 1895. In the interest of botanical science he has made explorations in the West Indies, Mexico, and Brazil. He is the author of *Weeds of West Virginia, Flora of West Virginia, American Medical Plants, Flora of Yucatan,* etc.

Milroy, ROBERT HUSTON, military officer; born in Washington county, Md., June 11, 1816; became a lawyer; served in the 1st Indiana Volunteers in the Mexican War; became colonel of the 9th Indiana Volunteers, April 26, 1861; brigadier-general, Feb. 6, 1862; and major-general in 1863; served principally in western Virginia and the Shenandoah Valley.

Mims, FORT, MASSACRE AT. In the autumn of 1812, Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet, went among the Creeks to stir them up to make war upon the whites. They were divided in sentiment, for many of them preferred peace and friendship with the Americans, and civil war was engendered. The white settlers among them were in great peril, and in the spring of 1813 they were led to expect an exterminating blow. They knew that a British squadron was in the Gulf, and on friendly terms with the Spaniards at Pensacola. They prepared to defend themselves as well as they might. They learned that British agents at Pensacola were distributing supplies among the Creeks. Very soon hostilities began here and there, and the white people fled to secret places for refuge—some in the thick swamps not far above the junction of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers. There they were joined by wealthy half-blood families, and the house of Samuel Mims, an old and wealthy inhabitant, was strongly stockaded with heavy pickets. Several other buildings were enclosed within the acre of ground stockaded, and the whole was known as Fort Mims. Major Beasley was placed in command and authorized to receive any citizens who would assist in defence of the station, and issue soldiers' rations to them. Its dimensions were soon too small for the people who flocked to it for protection against the impending storm, and a new enclosure was built. At the close of August Indians were seen prowling around Fort Mims; but Major Beasley was confident that he could "maintain the post against any number of Indians."

Aug. 30 was a beautiful day, and no sense of danger was felt at the fort. It contained 550 men, women, and children. The mid-day drum was beaten for dinner. The soldiers' were loitering listlessly around, or were playing cards; almost 100 children were playing around, and young men and maidens were dancing. At that moment 1,000 almost naked Creek warriors lay in a ravine not more than 440 yards from the fort, ready, like famished tigers, to spring upon their prey. They were led by Weathersford, a famous Creek chief. The first tap of the dinner-drum was the signal for the Indians to rise from their cover and rush to the fort; and the first intimation of their presence was a horrid yell, that filled the air as they came streaming over a field towards an open gate of the fort. Beasley flew to close it, and the soldiers rushed with their arms to the portholes. The unarmed men and the women and children, pale with terror, huddled within the houses and cabins of the enclosure.

Beasley was too late. He was felled by clubs and tomahawks, and over his dead body the terrible torrent rushed into the new enclosure.

The soldiers made a gallant fight for three hours. They were nearly all slain. The unarmed people were in the old enclosure, with a picket between them and the slaughter. The Indians became weary, and slackened their fire. The people in the main fort hoped the savages were about to depart. They were disappointed. Weathersford was not a man to accept half a victory when a whole one was attainable. His people, who had begun to carry away plunder, were rebuked by him, and exhorted to complete the work. The horrid task was resumed. The few soldiers left made stout resistance, when the Indians sent fire on the wings of arrows to the roof of Mims's house, and it burst into a flame. Very soon the whole "fort" was in flames. The Indians pressed into the main fort. With the most horrible cruelties they murdered the defenceless. Weathersford begged the warriors to spare the women and children, but they refused. He had raised the storm, but was not able to control it. At sunset 400 of the inmates of Fort Mims lay dead. Not a white woman or child escaped. Twelve of the soldiers cut their way through the cordon of Indians and escaped. Most of the negroes were spared, and were made slaves of the Indians. A negro woman, who had received a ball in her breast, escaped to the river, seized a canoe, and, paddling down to Fort Stoddart, gave to General Claiborne there the first tidings of the horrible tragedy. The contest lasted from 12 M. until 5 P.M. The Indians had suffered severely, for not less than 400 Creek warriors were killed or wounded, as the victims had sold their lives as dearly as possible.

Milwaukee, known as the "Cream City," the metropolis of Wisconsin, situated on the western shore of Lake Michigan, was founded by Solomon Juneau, who arrived there Sept. 14, 1818. The place and name were known as early as Nov. 10, 1699, as John Buisson de St. Comes mentions being storm-bound at *Milwarck* on that date. The east side was first platted and named Milwaukee by Messrs. Juneau and Martin in 1835, the first sale of lots taking place in August of that year. In 1838 the population of Milwaukee was 700; 1840, 1,700; and by decades since, 1850, 20,061; 1860, 45,246; 1870, 71,440; 1880, 115,587; 1890, 204,468; 1900, 285,315; by this census the fourteenth city in the United States in point of population.

Mine Explosion. See PETERSBURG.

Mine Run, OPERATIONS NEAR. Early in November, 1863, General Lee was preparing to go into winter quarters near Culpeper Court-house when the National victory at Rappahannock Station and the crossing of that stream by Meade, Nov. 8, caused him, under cover of darkness, to withdraw beyond the Rapidan, and intrench his army on Mine Run and its vicinity, a strong defensive position. Meade lay quietly between the Rappahannock and Rapidan, until late in November, when, his communications being perfect with his supplies and the capital, he undertook a bold movement. He proceeded to attempt to turn the right of the Confederates, and, sweeping round towards Orange Court-house, overwhelm Ewell, turn the works on Mine Run, and effect a lodgment at Orange and Gordonsville. This would involve the perilous measure of cutting loose from his supplies, but he took the risk. He left his trains parked at Richardsville, on the north side of the Rapidan, and moved on the morning of Nov. 26; but instead of crossing that stream in a short time, so as to march rapidly and surprise the Confederates, the whole day was consumed in the passage. It was 10 A.M. the next day before any of the troops reached the designated point, when the movement had become known to the Confederates.

Warren, with 10,000 men, followed by an artillery reserve, was confronted by a large portion of Ewell's corps, and brisk skirmishing began. French's troops, that were to support Warren, did not, for various causes, come up until night, when the latter was so hard pressed that Meade was compelled to send troops from his left to Warren's assistance. These various delays had given Lee ample time to prepare to meet his antagonist, and Meade's plans, so well laid, were frustrated. He concentrated his whole army on the west bank of Mine Run, and ex-

tended his fortifications along the line of that stream until they crossed the two highways on which Meade's army lay. In front of all was a strong *abatis*. Meade, however, resolved to attack Lee, and to Warren was intrusted the task of opening the assault, his whole force being about 26,000 men. He was to make the attack at 8 A.M., Nov. 30.

At that hour Meade's batteries on the left and centre were opened, and skirmishers of the latter dashed across Mine Run and drove back those of the Confederates. But Warren's guns were not heard. He had found the Confederates much stronger than he expected, and prudently refrained from attacking. Satisfied that Warren had done wisely, Meade ordered a general suspension of operations. Lee's defences were growing stronger every hour, while Meade's strength was diminishing. His rations were nearly exhausted, and his supply-trains were beyond the Rapidan. To attempt to bring them over might expose them to disaster, for winter was at hand and rain might suddenly swell the streams and make them impassable. Meade therefore determined to sacrifice himself, if necessary, rather than his army. He abandoned the enterprise, recrossed the Rapidan, and went into winter quarters on his old camping-ground between that stream and the Rappahannock.

Miner, JAMES G., military officer; born in New England in 1819; graduated at the University of Edinburgh; later removed to Texas. During the Mexican War he served under General Taylor. Prior to the Civil War he was a partner in the famous Tredegar Iron Works in Richmond, Va., and during that war was assistant Secretary of the Confederate Navy. Later he invented a high-pressure engine, but it did not prove a financial success. He died in Milford, O., May 28, 1901.

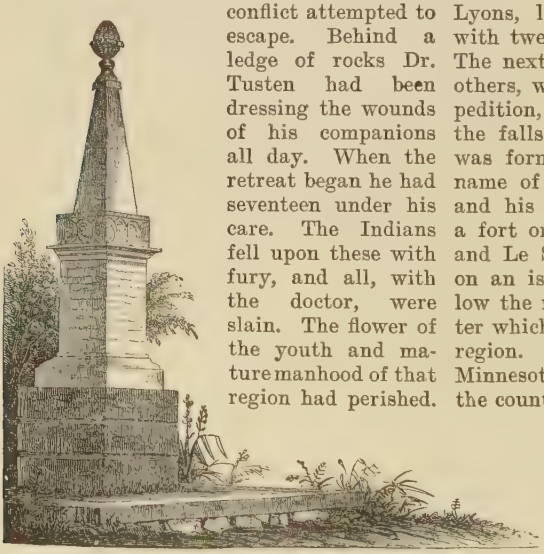
Mingoes, the Algonquian name for the Indians of the Five Nations or Iroquois, especially of the Mohawk tribe.

Minisink, DESOLATION OF. On the night of July 19, 1779, Joseph Brant, the Mohawk chief, at the head of sixty Indians and twenty-seven Tories disguised as savages, stole upon the little town of Minisink, Orange co., N. Y., which was wholly unprotected, and, before the people were aroused from their slumbers, set on fire several houses. The inhabitants fled to the mountains. Their small stockade fort, mill, and twelve houses and barns were burned; their orchards and plantations were laid waste; their cattle were driven away, and booty of every kind was borne to the banks of the Delaware, where the

THE ABATIS IN FRONT OF LEE'S FORTIFICATIONS.

chief had left the main body of his warriors. Several of the inhabitants were killed, and some were made prisoners.

When news of this invasion reached Goshen, Dr. Tusten, colonel of the local militia, ordered the officers of his regiment to meet him at Minisink the next day, with as many volunteers as they could muster. They promptly responded, and 140 hardy men were gathered around Tusten the next morning, many of them the most respected citizens. They pursued the invaders, under Colonel Hathorn, who joined Tusten with a small reinforcement, and, being senior officer, took chief command. The more prudent officers counselled against pursuit when the great number of Indians at Brant's command became known. But hot-heads ruled, and the expedition soon became involved in a desperate fight with the Indians on July 22. The Indians pressed upon the white people on every side, until they were hemmed within the circumference of one acre, on a rocky hill that sloped on all sides. The conflict began at 11 A.M., and lasted till sunset. Into that hollow square the Indians broke. The survivors of the conflict attempted to escape. Behind a ledge of rocks Dr. Tusten had been dressing the wounds of his companions all day. When the retreat began he had seventeen under his care. The Indians fell upon these with fury, and all, with the doctor, were slain. The flower of the youth and mature manhood of that region had perished.



MONUMENT AT GOSHEN.

The event made thirty-three widows in the congregation of the Presbyterian church at Goshen. It gave firmness to Sullivan's men, who, a few weeks afterwards, desolated the beautiful land of the Cayugas and Senecas. In 1822 the citizens of Orange county collected the bones of the slain, and caused them to be buried near the centre of the green at the foot of the main street of the village of Goshen. There was a great multitude of citizens present. Over their remains a new marble monument was erected the same year, the corner-stone of which was laid by General Hathorn, then over eighty years of age, and one of the survivors of the massacre. The monument bears the names of the slain.

Minnesota, STATE OF. The first Europeans who trod its soil were two Huguenots, Sieur Groselliers and Sieur Radisson, who, in search of a northwest passage to China, passed through this region in 1659. Returning to Montreal in 1660 with sixty canoes laden with skins, they excited others to go in search of peltries, and this was the beginning of the French fur-trade which afterwards interfered with the Hudson Bay Company. To secure this trade, which the English were grasping, Daniel Greysolon du Luth, a native of Lyons, left Quebec in September, 1678, with twenty men, and entered Minnesota. The next year Father Hennepin and two others, who were a part of La Salle's expedition, penetrated the country far above the falls of St. Anthony. The territory was formally taken possession of in the name of the French monarch, by Perrot and his associates, in 1689. They built a fort on the west shore of Lake Pepin; and Le Seur built another fort, in 1695, on an island in the Mississippi, just below the mouth of the St. Croix River, after which the fur-traders flocked into that region. In 1763, Jonathan Carver visited Minnesota and published a description of the country. In 1800, a part of Minnesota lying west of the Mississippi was included in the Territory of Indiana.

The purchase of Louisiana, in 1803, gave the United States possession of the whole country west of the Mississippi, and in 1816 Congress passed a law excluding foreigners from the fur-trade in that region. Fort Snelling was built and garrisoned in 1819, and active trade with

the Indians was carried on there. In 1820 that region was explored by a party under Gen. Lewis Cass, and by Major

STATE SEAL OF MINNESOTA.

Long in 1821. A third exploring party went there in 1832, led by Henry R. Schoolcraft, who discovered the main source of the Mississippi River. In 1837, some lumbering operations began in Minnesota, upon the St. Croix River. The town of St. Paul was founded in 1842, and in 1849 the Territory of Minnesota was created. At that time one-half the lands included in the Territory belonged to the Indians, and the white population was less than 5,000. Emigrants flocked in, and at the end of eight years (1857) the number was 150,000. In 1851 the Sioux ceded to the United States all their lands in Minnesota. In 1857 application was made by the people for the admission of Minnesota into the Union as a State. This was effected May 11, 1858. Minnesota furnished to the National army and navy during the Civil War 25,034 soldiers. The population in 1890, a little more than fifty years after the first settlement, was 1,301,826; in 1900, 1,751,394.

The people of the State were faithful to the old flag in 1861; so was the governor, Alexander Ramsey. The legislature that assembled Jan. 26 passed a series of loyal resolutions, in which secession was denounced as revolution, and the acts of the South Carolinians in Charleston Harbor as treasonable; and said that the full strength of the national authority under the national flag should be put forth. It gave assurance that the people of Minnesota would never consent to the obstruction of the free navigation of the Mississippi River "from its source to its mouth by any power hostile to the federal government."

A VIEW OF ST. PAUL.

At midsummer, in 1862, Little Crow, a saintly looking savage in civilized costume, leader of Sioux warriors, began war on the white people, and in August and

A SIOUX MASSACRE.

September butchered inhabitants at three points in Minnesota, and at posts beyond the boundary of the State. For nine days the Sioux besieged Fort Ridgely. Fort Abercrombie was also besieged, and twice assaulted; and in that region the Indians murdered about 500 white inhabitants, mostly defenceless women and children. Gen. H. H. Sibley was sent with a body of militia to crush the Indians. He attacked a large force under Little Crow at Wood Lake, and drove them into Dakota, making 500 of their number prisoners. Tried by court-martial, 300 of them were sentenced to be hanged. The President interfered, and only thirty-seven of the worst offenders were executed, Feb. 28, 1863. The "Sioux War" was not ended until the summer of 1863, when General Pope took command of that department, picketed the line of settlements in the far Northwest with 2,000 soldiers, and took vigorous measures to disperse the hostile bands. Generals Sibley and Sully moved against them in June, 1863, fought the Indians at different places, and finally scattered them among the wilds of the eastern slopes of the spurs of the Rocky Mountains. An outbreak by the Pillager band of Chippewas at Leech Lake occurred in October, 1898, because of continued impositions by the whites; but it was quickly suppressed by a detachment of the regular army. See UNITED STATES, MINNESOTA, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Alex. Ramsey, of Pennsylvania	appointed	April 2, 1849
Willis A. Gorman, of Indiana	"	March 4, 1853
Samuel Medary	"	1857

STATE GOVERNORS.

Henry H. Sibley	elected	1857
Alexander Ramsey	"	Oct., 1859
Henry A. Swift	"	July, 1863
Stephen Miller	"	Oct., 1863
William R. Marshall, Rep	"	Nov. 7, 1865
Horace Austin, "	"	Nov., 1869
Cushman K. Davis, "	"	Nov., 1873
John S. Pillsbury, "	"	Nov. 2, 1875
Lucius F. Hubbard "	"	Nov., 1881
Andrew R. McGill, "	"	Nov. 2, 1886
William R. Merriam, "	term begins	Jan. 9, 1889
Knute Nelson, "	" "	Jan. 4, 1893
David M. Clough	" "	Jan. 31, 1895
John Lind	" "	Jan. 2, 1899
Samuel R. Van Sant	" "	Jan. 7, 1901
John A. Johnson	" "	Jan. 2, 1905

UNITED STATES SENATORS

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
James M. Rice	35th to 37th	1858 to 1863
William W. Phelps	35th	1858 " 1859
Morton S. Wilkinson	36th to 38th	1859 " 1865
Alexander Ramsey	38th	1863
Daniel S. Norton	39th to 41st	1865 to 1870
William Windom	41st " 45th	1870 " 1881
Ozora P. Stearns	41st " 43d	1871 " 1875
Samuel J. R. McMillan	44th " 49th	1875 " 1887
Dwight M. Sabin	47th " 49th	1881 " 1887
Cushman K. Davis	50th " 56th	1887 " 1900
Charles A. Towne	56th	1900 " 1901
William D. Washburn	51st to 54th	1889 " 1895
Knute Nelson	54th " ——	1895 " ——
Moses E. Clapp	56th " ——	1901 " ——

MILLS AT MINNEAPOLIS.

Minot, GEORGE RICHARDS, jurist; born in Boston, Mass., Dec. 22, 1758; graduated at Harvard College in 1778; began law practice in Boston; became probate judge for Suffolk county in 1792; and was secretary of the convention which adopted the national Constitution. His publications include *Eulogy on Washington; History of the Insurrection in Massachusetts in 1786;* and *Continuation of the (Hutchinson's) History of Massachusetts Bay from the Year 1748, with an Introductory Sketch of Events from its Original Settlement.* He died in Boston, Mass., Jan. 2, 1802.

Mint, FIRST AMERICAN. The earliest colonial coinage was in Massachusetts, in pursuance of an order of the General Court, passed May 27, 1652, which established a "mint-house" at Boston. The order required the coinage of "12-pence, 6-pence, and 3-pence peeces, which shall be for forme flatt, and stamped on one side with N. E., and on the other side with XIId, VId, and IIId," according to the value of each piece. These coins were to be of the fineness of "new sterling English money," and every shilling was to "weigh three penny Troy weight, and lesser peeces proportionably." It was found, as soon as they were in circulation, that, owing to the excessive plainness of their finish, they were exposed to "washing and clipping." To remedy this evil, the General Court, on Oct. 9 of the same year, ordered a new die, and required that "henceforth both shillings and smaller peeces shall have a double ring on either side, with this inscription: Massachusetts, and a tree in the centre, on the one side, and New England and the date of the year on the other side." In 1662 a two-penny piece was added to the series. This mint existed thirty-four years, but the coins issued have only the dates 1652

THE PINE-TREE SHILLING.

and 1662, the original dies having done service throughout the whole period as "pine-tree shillings." See COINAGE; CURRENCY; UNITED STATES MINT.

Minty, ROBERT HORATIO GEORGE, military officer; born in County Mayo, Ireland, Dec. 4, 1831; served in the British army from 1849 to 1853; removed to Michigan; and was made lieutenant-colonel of the 3d Michigan Cavalry in 1861. He distinguished himself in battles in the West and South, notably at Stone River, Chickamauga, and in the Atlanta campaign, raiding with Kilpatrick in Georgia; was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in 1864; and at the close of the war was brevetted major-general.

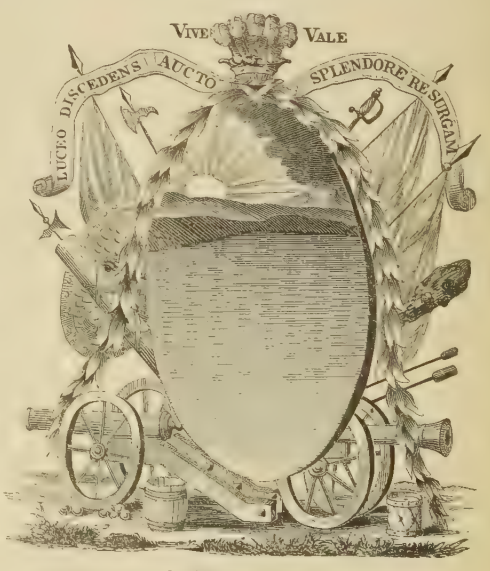
Minuit, PETER, colonist; born in Wesel, Germany, about 1580; appointed director, or governor, of New Netherland, 1625–31; entered the service of the Swedish West India Company in 1633; led a body of settlers to NEW SWEDEN (*q. v.*) in 1637. He died in Fort Christiania, Del., in 1641.

Minute-men. In November, 1774, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts authorized the enrolment of 12,000 men in the province, who should be prepared to take the field at a minute's warning. Deacons of churches, and even pastors, became captains of companies, and magistrates led the people. This army was, from the conditions of its enlistment, called "Minute-men." There were similar organizations in other colonies, especially in Virginia.

Miranda, FRANCISCO, military officer; born in Caracas, Venezuela, June 9, 1756; became a captain in the Spanish army; and served in the United States in 1779 and 1781. He was a born agitator and revolutionist, and tried to free Spanish-American colonies from the Spanish yoke, presenting his projects to various European courts. In the French Revolution he acquired a high reputation as a military leader, especially as an engineer and tactician, and became a general of division. Twice he was expelled from France as a dangerous intriguer.

About the beginning of 1806 he was again in the United States, for the purpose of fitting out an expedition having for its object the revolutionizing of the Spanish province of Caracas, which now constitutes the republic of Venezuela. At that time there was much irritation of feeling between the United States and Spain, and the government officers averted their eyes from Miranda's doings. His preparations for the expedition were made at New York, while he resided at Washington, D. C., and was on intimate social relations with President Jefferson and Secretary Madison. He chartered the ship *Leander* at New York, and she sailed from that port (February) with arms and about 250 men. He was joined by other vessels. The expedition reached Caracas in safety, and, with the help of the English in that quarter, Miranda took possession of two or three towns on the coast. The people would not listen to his offers of liberty. The Spaniards captured two transports, with about sixty Americans, and the expedition ended in failure about three months after the *Leander* left New York. Miranda escaped to Carthagena, when Bolivar delivered him to the Spaniards, who confined him in a dungeon in Cadiz till his death, July 14, 1816.

Mischianza, THE. Before Sir William Howe's departure from Philadelphia, May 24, 1778, he and his brother, the admiral, were honored by a grand complimentary entertainment, "the most splendid," the accomplished Major André wrote, "ever



MISCHIANZA TICKET.

given by an army to their commander." It was given at the Wharton Mansion and lawns on the present Fifth Street. André was the chief inventor of the pageant, which was called, in the Italian tongue, *mischianza*, a medley, and the ticket of admission was designed by him. It began with a grand regatta on the Delaware, in the presence of thousands of spectators, and accompanied by martial music and the flutter of banners. This over, the scene changed to a tournament on Wharton's lawn, in which young ladies of Tory families in Philadelphia joined in a spectacle imitating the noted military pastimes of the Middle Ages. There were knights and ladies, a queen of beauty, and all the paraphernalia of a scene of ancient chivalry. Then there was a grand ball and supper in a temporary hall, decorated by the skilful hand of André, with painted scenery, and with evergreens, lustrous mirrors, and a host of chandeliers. The entertainment was concluded by a grand display of fireworks. It was an appropriate closing of a round of dissipation in which the British army had indulged in Philadelphia for six months, where profligacy among the officers became so conspicuous that many of the Tory families who had welcomed the invaders had prayed for their departure.

Missionary Ridge, BATTLE OF. Gen. W. T. Sherman was lying, with his corps, along the line of the Big Black River, in Mississippi, when General Grant called him, Sept. 22, 1863, and a greater portion of his command to Chattanooga. Sherman fought his way eastward. He crossed the Tennessee River to the north side, at Eastport (Nov. 1), under cover of gunboats, and, pushing on, reported to Grant in person on Nov. 15. Sherman's corps was then in command of Gen. Frank Blair, and, on the afternoon of Nov. 23, it was ready to cross the Tennessee above Chattanooga, on a pontoon bridge which it had stealthily brought with them, at the moment when General Thomas was moving the centre of the Nationals towards the Confederates on Missionary Ridge, to ascertain whether Bragg was preparing to flee or to fight. He was ready for the latter act. When Thomas moved, the heavy guns at Fort Wood, Chattanooga, played upon Missionary Ridge and Orchard Knob, a lower hill a considerable distance in advance of the former. Wood's division of Granger's corps led the left, and Sheridan's the right. General Palmer supported Granger's right, Johnson's division remained in the trenches, and Howard's corps was in reserve. The Nationals soon drove the Confederates from Orchard Knob by a vigorous charge, carrying the rifle-pits on that eminence and taking 200 prisoners.

Wood immediately intrenched; Howard moved up and took position on the left, and Bridge's (Illinois) battery was placed in position on the crest. Bragg had been fatally outgeneralled. To get Sherman's troops across the Tennessee without discovery, Hooker was ordered to divert the attention of the Confederates by an attack on Bragg's left on LOOKOUT MOUNTAIN (*q. v.*). The troops had all crossed before noon of the 24th, and proceeded to attack the Confederates on the northern end of Missionary Ridge, and secured an important point. The night of the 24th was spent in important preparations for battle the next day. Bragg drew all his troops across Chattanooga Creek and concentrated them on Missionary Ridge on the morning of the 25th. Hooker moved down to the Chattanooga Valley from Lookout Mountain, and, in the afternoon, drove the Confederates out of Ross's Gap, capturing a large quantity of artillery, small-arms, ammunition, wagons, and stores. He then attempted to clear the ridge of Confederates, but found them strongly fortified behind the intrenchments cast up there by Thomas at the time of the battle of CHICKAMAUGA (*q. v.*). Osterhaus was leading the Nationals parallel with the ridge on its eastern side, while Cruft was ordered to move along its crest, and Geary, with the batteries, marched up the valley on the western side.

This dangerous movement in the valley Bragg's skirmishers attempted to meet, but were driven back upon their main line by a part of Cruft's forces. Meanwhile, the remainder of Cruft's column formed in battle-line, and moving at a charging pace, steadily pushed the Confederates back, their front line, under General Stewart, retreating, while fighting, upon the second line, under General Bate, while Geary and Osterhaus were pouring mur-

derous fires upon their flanks. So the half-running fight continued until near sunset, when the Confederates broke into confusion and fled, and fully 2,000 of them were made prisoners. Hooker's victory in that part of the field was complete at twilight.

Meanwhile, Sherman had been busy clearing the ridge at the other extremity of the battle-line, where Hardee was in command. His order of battle was similar to that of Hooker, and his troops were roused at sunrise. The ground to be traversed was very difficult; instead of a continuous ridge, it was a chain of hills, each wooded and fortified. General Corse led the way. Having gained the second crest from his point of departure, Corse, in moving forward, had a severe hand-to-hand struggle for an hour, but could not carry the works, nor could the Confederates repulse him. At the same time, Gen. Morgan L. Smith and Colonel Loomis were advancing on both sides of the ridge, fighting their way to the Confederate flanks. Up to 3 P.M. Sherman had not been able to gain much advantage. General Grant, from his post on Orchard Knob, had been watching all these movements. Early in the afternoon he ordered General Thomas to advance with the National centre. The divisions of Wood, Baird, Sheridan, and Johnson moved steadily forward. They created such a panic among the occupants of the rifle-pits at the base of the ridge that they fled in great haste towards the crest.

The Nationals stopped but for a moment to reform, when, by an irresistible impulse, the troops, without orders from their commanders, began to follow the fugitives. The men of Willich's and Hazen's brigade had commenced running forward for security under the ridge, but as they reached it they commenced its ascent. Hazen then gave the order "Forward!" and sent his staff-officers to urge everybody forward up the declivity. The fire they passed through was dreadful, but the men, without preserving lines, formed into groups, wherever the ground gave cover; and each group, led by a color, steadily made its way up. Their colors were often shot down, but they were at once seized and borne along. The men pressed vigorously on, in the face of a terrible storm of grape and canister shot from about thirty guns on the summit, and murderous volleys of musketry from the well-filled rifle-pits on the crest. The Nationals did not waver for a moment, but pressed forward, when Lieutenant-

BATTLE OF MISSIONARY RIDGE.

Colonel Langdon, with Ohio volunteers, sprang forward and made a lodgment on the hill-top, within 500 yards of Bragg's headquarters. With shouts the remainder of the Nationals pushed upward, and very speedily the whole battle-line of the Confederates on Missionary Ridge was in their possession, with all the Confederate cannon and ammunition. Sherman soon drove the Confederates from the front, and the battle ceased at that end of the line. The divisions of Wood and Baird were obstinately resisted until dark, when, at the edge of the evening, the Confederates fled. General Breckinridge barely escaped capture. Grant reported the Union loss in the series of struggles which ended in victory at Missionary Ridge at 5,286, of whom 757 were killed and 330 missing. Bragg's loss was about 3,000 in killed and wounded and 6,000 made prisoners. The Nationals captured forty pieces of artillery and 7,000 small-arms.

Mississippi, STATE OF. The first Europeans who traversed this region were De Soto and his companions. They made no settlements. La Salle discovered the river in 1682, and took formal possession of the country it watered in the name of his King. In 1716 the French erected a fort on the site of Natchez. The colonies planted there grew slowly until New Orleans was founded, when many settlers were attracted to the Mississippi River; but hostile Indians suppressed rapid growth, and it was not until after the creation of the Territory of Mississippi, April 7, 1798, that the population became numerous. The boundaries of the Territory at first included all of Alabama north of the 31st parallel. In 1817 Mississippi was admitted into the Union as a State. A new constitution was adopted in 1832. In November, 1860, the legislature, in extraordinary session, provided for an election of delegates to a convention to be held on Jan. 7, 1861, to consider the subject of secession. That convention passed an ordinance of secession on the 9th, and, on March 30, ratified the constitution of the Confederate States.

The northern portion of the State was the theatre of military operations in 1862, but the most important ones were in 1863, in movements connected with the siege and capture of VICKSBURG (*q. v.*). On June 13, 1865, President Johnson appointed a provisional governor (W. L. Sharkey),

STATE SEAL OF MISSISSIPPI

who ordered an election of delegates to a convention which met Aug. 14. By that convention the constitution of the State was so amended as to abolish slavery, Aug. 21, 1865, and the ordinance of secession was repealed. In October Benjamin G. Humphreys was elected governor, and Congressmen were also chosen. The latter were not admitted to seats, for Congress had its own plan for reorganizing the Union. By that plan Mississippi and Arkansas constituted one military district, and military rule took the place of civil government. Early in January, 1868, a convention assembled to adopt a constitution, and remained in session until May 18. GEN. ADELBERT AMES (*q. v.*) was appointed governor, June 16, in place of Governor Humphreys, and, at an election held June 22, the constitution was rejected. On April 10, 1869, Congress authorized the President to submit the constitution again to a vote of the people, with such clauses separate as he might deem proper. The constitution was almost unanimously ratified at an election in November. Objectionable clauses, such as those disfranchising and disqualifying persons who had taken part against the government in the Civil War, being voted upon separately, were rejected. A Republican governor (James L. Alcorn) was elected. In January, 1870, the legislature ratified the Fourteenth and Fifteenth

amendments to the national Constitution. By act of Congress, Feb. 23, 1870, Mississippi was readmitted into the Union, and on March 10 Governor Alcorn was inaugurated, and the civil authority assumed rightful control. Population in 1890, 1,289,600; in 1900, 1,551,270. See UNITED STATES, MISSISSIPPI, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Winthrop Sargent	appointed	May 10, 1798
William C. C. Claiborne	"	July 10, 1801
Robert Williams	"	1804
David Holmes	"	March, 1809

STATE GOVERNORS.

David Holmes	term begins	Nov. 1817
George Poindexter	"	" 1819
Walter Leake	"	" 1821
Lieut.-Gov. Gerard C. Brandon	acting	" 1825
David Holmes	term begins	" "
Gerard C. Brandon	"	" 1827
Abram M. Scott	"	" 1831
Lieut.-Gov. Fountain Winston	acting	" 1833
Hiram G. Runnels	term begins	Jan. 1834
Charles Lynch	"	" 1836
Alexander G. McNutt, Democrat	"	" 1838
Tilgham M. Tucker, "	"	" 1842
Albert G. Brown, "	"	" 1844
Joseph W. Matthews, "	"	" 1848
John A. Quitman, "	"	" 1850
John Isaac Guion, pres. of the Senate,	acting,	Feb. 3, 1851
James Whitefield, " "	"	Nov. 25, "
Henry S. Foote, Union	term begins	Jan. 1852
John J. McRae	"	" 1854
William McWillie	"	Nov. 16, 1857
John J. Pettus, Democrat	"	Jan. 1860
Jacob Thompson	"	" 1862
Charles Clarke	"	" 1864
W. L. Sharkey, provisional	appointed	June 13, 1865
Benjamin G. Humphreys	term begins	Oct. 16, "
Gen. Adelbert Ames, provisional,	appointed	June 15, 1868
James L. Alcorn, Republican	term begins	Jan. 1870
R. C. Powers	acting	Dec. "
Adelbert Ames, Republican	term begins	Jan. 1874
John M. Stone	acting,	March 29, 1876
Robert Lowry	term begins	Jan. 1882
John M. Stone	"	" 1890
A. J. McLaurin	"	" 1896
A. H. Longino	"	" 1900
James K. Vardaman	"	" 1904

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Walter Leake	15th to 16th	1817 to 1820
Thomas H. Williams	15th	1817
David Holmes	16th to 18th	1820 to 1825
Powhatan Ellis	19th " 22d	1825 " 1832
Thomas B. Reed	19th " 20th	1826 " 1829
Robert H. Adams	21st	1830
George Poindexter	21st to 23d	1830 to 1836
John Black	22d " 25th	1832 " 1838
Robert J. Walker	24th " 29th	1836 " 1845
James F. Trotter	25th	1838
Thomas H. Williams	25th	1838
John Henderson	26th to 28th	1839 to 1845
Joseph W. Chalmers	29th	1845
Jesse Speight	29th to 30th	1845 to 1847
Jefferson Davis	30th " 32d	1847 " 1851
Henry S. Foote	30th " 32d	1847 " 1851
John I. McRae	32d	1852
Stephen Adams	32d to 34th	1852 to 1857
Walter Brooke	32d	1852 " 1853
Albert G. Brown	33d to 36th	1854 " 1861
Jefferson Davis	35th " 36th	1857 " 1861
[37th, 38th, 39th, 40th Congresses vacant.]		
Adelbert Ames	41st to 43d	1870 to 1874
Hiram R. Revels (colored)	41st	1870 " 1871

UNITED STATES SENATORS—*Continued.*

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
James Lusk Alcorn	42d to 44th	1871 to 1877
Henry R. Pease	43d	1874
Blanche K. Bruce (colored)	44th to 46th	1875 to 1881
Lucius Q. C. Lamar	45th " 48th	1877 " 1885
James Z. George	47th " 54th	1881 " 1897
Edward C. Walthall	49th " 53d	1885 " 1894
Anselm J. McLaurin	53d " 54th	1894 " 1895
Will Van Amberg Sullivan	55th " 57th	1898 " 1901
Hernando De Soto Money	54th " ——	1897 " ——
Anselm J. McLaurin	57th " ——	1901 " ——

Mississippi Company. See LAW, JOHN.

Mississippi River. Indian name Miche-sepé, meaning "Great Water," or "Father of Waters"; was first discovered by Europeans with De Soto, in June, 1541, not far from the site of Helena, Ark., it is supposed. De Soto died on its banks. A London physician named Coxe purchased the old patent for Carolina granted to Sir Robert Heath (see NORTH CAROLINA) in 1630, and put forward pretensions to the mouth of the Mississippi, which two armed English vessels were sent to explore. Bienville, exploring the Mississippi at a point some 50 miles from its mouth, unexpectedly encountered one of Coxe's vessels coming up. Assured that this was not the Mississippi, but a dependency of Canada, already occupied by the French, the English commander turned about and left the river; and that point has ever since been known as "the English Turn." In 1673 Joliet and Marquette descended the river to a point within three days' journey of its mouth. Father Hennepin explored it from the mouth of the Illinois River up to the falls of St. Anthony in 1680, and in 1682 La Salle descended it to the Gulf of Mexico, and took possession of the country drained by it and its tributaries in the name of the French King, and named the great stream River Colbert. In 1699 Iberville built Fort Biloxi near its mouth, and in 1703 the first settlement of Europeans in that region was made at St. Peter's, on the Yazoo branch. New Orleans was laid out in 1708, and the building of levees was commenced there.

In Civil War Time.—The gunboats of Commodore Farragut and the mortar-fleet of Commodore Porter attacked Fort Jackson, 60 miles below NEW ORLEANS (*q. v.*), on April 18, 1862. Fort Jackson opened the conflict by a shot, when a bombardment was commenced by twenty mortar-

vessels. Porter, on the *Harriet Lane*, directed the firing. This conflict was continued several days, assisted by the gunboats, when, perceiving little chance for reducing the forts, Farragut prepared to run by them. In the intense darkness of the night of the 20th five of the gunboats ran up and destroyed the boom below the forts. The Nationals were discovered, and a heavy fire from the forts was opened upon them; and two hours later a blazing fire-raft came roaring down the river, but did no damage. Night after night these fire-rafts were sent down. During the bombardment 1,000 shells fell within the fort. At sunset on the 23d Farragut was prepared for the perilous feat of running past the forts. The mortar-boats, keeping their position, were to cover the advance of the fleet. At 2 A.M. the next day the fleet moved. Farragut, with his wooden flag-ship *Hartford* and the large ships *Richmond* and *Brooklyn*, that formed the first division, was to keep near the right bank and fight Fort Jackson; while Capt. Theodorus Bailey (*q. v.*) with the second division, composed of eight gunboats, was to keep close to the left bank and fight Fort St. Philip. To Captain Bell, with six gunboats, was assigned the duty of attacking the Confederate fleet above the forts. Keeping in the channel, he was to push on to his assigned work without regard to the forts.

These were silent until the *Cayuga*, Captain Bailey's ship, passed the boom, when heavy guns were brought to bear upon her. She did not reply until she was close to Fort St. Philip, when she gave it tremendous broadsides of grape and canister as she passed by. Four other gunboats were close in her wake and imitated her example, and the whole of Bailey's division passed the forts almost unharmed. The *Hartford* and her consorts had a tremendous struggle with Fort Jackson. The *Brooklyn* had become entangled with a sunken hulk, and just as she had become free she was furiously attacked by the ram *Manassas*, but without being much injured. She had just escaped the ram, when a large Confederate steamer assailed her. She gave it a broadside, which set it on fire, and its swift destruction ensued. Then she brought her guns to bear upon Fort St. Philip and silenced that work. Meanwhile the *Hartford* was battling with Fort Jackson and encountering a fire-raft that set her ablaze, but the flames were soon extinguished. Captain Bell made his way up the channel.

THE HARTFORD.

Three of his vessels had passed the forts, when a fourth was disabled by a storm of shot, one of which pierced her boiler, and she drifted down the river. Another vessel recoiled, and yet another, entangled among obstructions, could go no farther.

Before the fleet had fairly passed the forts the Confederate gunboats and rams, commanded by Captain Mitchell, had attacked the National vessels. The scene was then awfully grand. The noise of twenty mortars and 260 great guns, afloat and ashore, was terrific. Added to these were blazing fire-rafts, lighting up the scene with their lurid blaze. Upon the *Cayuga* (Captain Bailey) and the *Varuna* (Captain Boggs) the chief wrath of the Confederates seemed to be directed. These commanders performed wonders of valor. Bailey's vessel escaped up the river after having been struck forty-two times. The *Varuna* had rushed into the midst of the Confederate fleet to assist the *Cayuga*,

and delivered her broadsides right and left with destructive effect. She was finally attacked by a ram, which she drove ashore in flames, when Boggs, finding his own vessel sinking, let go her anchor and tied her bow up to the shore, at the same time firing upon an antagonist. This was kept up until the water was over the gun-trucks, when Boggs got his crew on shore. The *Varuna* had driven four Confederate gunboats ashore in flames.

Thus ended one of the most desperate conflicts of the war. Within the space of an hour and a half after the National vessels left their anchorage the forts were passed, and eleven of the Confederate vessels—nearly the whole of their fleet—were destroyed. The National loss was thirty killed and 125 wounded. All of Farragut's vessels—twelve in number—joined the *Cayuga* at quarantine above the forts, when the dead were carried ashore and buried. The forts were surrendered, and the lower Mississippi was opened as far as New Orleans.

In this desperate engagement the ram *Manassas* had taken a conspicuous part in the flotilla fight above the forts. She was a peculiar-shaped iron-clad vessel, with a powerful iron beak; but in this engagement she was so dreadfully pounded and shattered by the shot of the National gunboats that she was at length sent adrift, in a helpless condition, going towards Porter's mortar-fleet. Some of

THE MANASSAS.

these vessels opened fire upon her; but it was soon perceived that she was harmless. Her pipes were all twisted and riddled by shot, and her hull was well battered and pierced. Smoke was issuing from every opening, for she was on fire. At length, giving a plunge like some huge monster, she went hissing to the bottom of the Mississippi.

The river was well blockaded at Vicksburg and Port Hudson. Between these points Confederate transports were supplying the troops at both places. It was determined by the federal authorities to destroy them; and for this purpose the ram *Queen of the West* ran by the batteries at Vicksburg before daylight, Feb. 2, 1863, destroyed some vessels near Natchez, ran a few miles up the Red River, and, returning, repassed the Vicksburg batteries. On Feb. 10 she started on another raid down the river, accompanied by a gunboat and coal-barge. They passed the batteries at Vicksburg, went up the Red River to the Atchafalaya, captured a train of army-wagons and a quantity of stores on that stream, and also a small steamer (the *Era*) laden with corn and Texas soldiers. Captain Ellet compelled the pilot of the *Era* to serve the *Queen of the West* in the same capacity, when he purposely ran her ashore near Fort Taylor, where heavy guns soon disabled her. Captain Ellet and his crew abandoned her, and retreated on floating bales of cotton. The accompanying gunboat (*De Soto*) picked them up, when the same pilot ran her ashore, and the vessel and coal-barge were scuttled and sunk.

The little *Era* was now Ellet's last refuge. Casting her corn overboard (her Texan soldiers had been paroled), he went as lightly and rapidly as possible down to the Mississippi, when the same Confederate pilot ran her ashore, while four armed boats were close in chase. The *Era* was extricated, and, going slowly up the Mississippi, met the powerful National iron-clad *Indianola* coming down in a fog. She rescued the *Era* from her pursuers (among which was the powerful ram *Webb*, which had come out of the Red River), and she reached a point below Vicksburg in safety. The *Indianola* blockaded the mouth of the Red River a few days, and then ascending the Mississippi to enter the Big Black River, she was as-

sailed near Grand Gulf, at 9 P.M., by powerful Confederate gunboats (among them the *Webb* and the captured *Queen of the West*), and was compelled to surrender. The Confederates now believed they had nothing to fear between Vicksburg and Port Hudson, when they were alarmed and disconcerted by a trick. Admiral Porter fitted up a worthless flat-boat in imitation of a ram, with smoke-stacks made of pork-barrels, and set it afloat one night without a man on board. When the Confederates discovered it they believed it to be a terrible iron-clad monster. As it passed sullenly by it drew a tremendous fire from the batteries at Vicksburg. It seemed to defy shot and shell. Word was quickly sent to the gunboats below. The *Queen of the West* fled in great haste. The *Indianola* was destroyed to prevent her being captured by the awful ram, and her great guns went to the bottom of the river.

Modern Improvements.—It has been officially estimated that during the period of 1850–90 something like $35,000,000 was spent on the levees of the Mississippi, and that nearly or quite one-half of this sum was contributed by the taxpayers of the localities directly benefited. The engineers of the Mississippi River commission, authorized by act of Congress, reported in 1897 that a further sum of about $18,000,000 would be required to complete the work of construction and improvement, after which the chief expense would be confined to maintenance. The importance of the river to navigation and the great damage its banks have sustained from floods (see INUNDATIONS) induced Congress in 1892 to take a larger share in the work of constructing and strengthening the levees than previously, and to thus relieve the people of Missouri, Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Hence, of the allotment to the commission, averaging $2,500,000 per annum, usually one-half, and sometimes three-fifths, is used for this purpose. The following apportionment of the congressional appropriation of $2,250,000 for the improvement of the river in 1900–1 gives an idea of the character and costliness of the work:

Upper St. Francis Levee District	$20,000
Lower St. Francis Levee District	114,500
White River Levee District	$50,000
Upper Yazoo Levee District	94,000
Lower Yazoo Levee District	150,000
Upper Tansas Levee District	300,000
Lower Tansas Levee District	110,000
Atchafa Levee District	55,000
La Fourche Levee District	28,000
Barataria Levee District	14,000
Lake Borgne Levee District	14,500
Dredges and dredging	400,000
Surveys and observations	40,000
Plum Point Reach	80,000
Hopefield Point	50,000
Ashbrook Neck	70,000
Lake Providence Revetment	75,000
Kemple Bend Revetment	150,000
Giles Bend Revetment	150,000
For surveys	15,000
Plant	75,000

The Eads jetties at the mouth of the river form one of the grandest and most successful triumphs of engineering skill in the interest of inland navigation to be found anywhere.

Mississippi Valley, THE. See HART, ALBERT BUSHNELL.

Missouri, STATE OF, was a part of what was originally known as Upper Louisiana. By the grant of Louis XIV. to Crozat, Sept. 14, 1712, "all the country drained by the waters emptying, directly or indirectly, into the Mississippi River," is included in the boundaries of Louisiana. In northern Louisiana were included Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska. Below the Missouri the settlements were more rapid. In 1720 the discovery of lead-mines within its present borders drew adventurers there. Its oldest town, St. Genevieve, was founded in 1755, and, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, that whole region passed into the possession of the English. Already many of the Canadian French had settled on the borders of the Mississippi. Lands were liberally granted to the colonists by the English. Emigrants from Spain flocked in. In 1775 St. Louis, which had been first a fur-trading establishment, contained 800 inhabitants, and St. Genevieve about 460. In the region of Missouri there were soon stirring events; for Spain, taking sides with the Americans, made war on the English, and that country became master of lower Louisiana and Florida. In 1780 the British from the Lakes attacked St. Louis, but the timely arrival of COL. GEORGE ROGERS CLARKE (*q. v.*) in Illinois saved it from capture.

After the war Spain retained Louisiana,

and the country on the east bank of the Mississippi became the property of the United States. American settlers crossed the Mississippi, and collisions with the Spanish authorities ensued. Diplomacy settled the disputes, and the navigation of the Mississippi was made free to both parties. The purchase of LOUISIANA (*q. v.*) made a final settlement. It was divided into the Territory of New Orleans and the District of Louisiana. The latter was admitted into the Union as the State of Louisiana in 1812. The name of the District of Louisiana was changed to Missouri, and at that time the population was full 22,000. In 1817 it had increased to 60,000, and application was made to Congress for permission to frame a State constitution. It was framed, and application was made for the admission of Missouri as a State. Then came the struggle between the friends and foes of the slave-labor system, which ended in the famous compromise (see MISSOURI COMPROMISE), in accordance with the provisions of which

STATE SEAL OF MISSOURI.

Missouri was admitted to the Union, Aug. 10, 1821. From that time the material prosperity of the State rapidly increased. It was checked somewhat by the Civil War.

The inhabitants of the State were much agitated by the political events in KANSAS (*q. v.*). They had pretty well learned the merits of the question at issue, and when they were called upon to act they did so intelligently. They knew the value of the Union; and the great body of the people deprecated the teachings of the disloyal politicians, and determined to stand by the national government. Claiborne F. Jackson was inaugurated governor of Missouri, Jan. 4, 1861. In his message to the legislature he recommended the people to stand by their sister slave-labor States in whatever course they might pursue. He recommended the calling of a convention. This the legislature authorized (Jan. 16), but decreed that its action on the subject of secession should be submitted to the people before it should be valid.

The convention assembled in Jefferson City, Feb. 28. On the second day of the session it adjourned to St. Louis, where it reassembled, March 4, with Sterling Price as president, and Samuel A. Lowe as secretary. Price professed to be a Unionist, and so obtained his election. He soon afterwards became one of the most active Confederate military leaders in that region. Luther J. Glenn, an accredited commissioner from Georgia, was allowed to address the convention on the first day of the session at St. Louis. He strongly urged Missouri to join the "Southern Confederacy"; but it was found that the atmosphere of St. Louis, in and out of the convention, was not congenial to the nourishment of such an idea. The population of that city was made up largely of New-Englanders and Germans, who were loyal; while emigrants from slave-labor States, especially Virginia, composed the great body of the Confederates. Glenn's remarks were greeted with hisses by spectators at the convention. The convention itself officially assured him that his views were not acceptable to that body, and its proceedings throughout were marked by a great dignity and propriety.

The report of a committee on federal relations, submitted to the convention on March 9, deplored the offensive language used towards the slave-labor States and the institution of slavery by the anti-slavery speakers and writers in the free-labor States; but declared that "heretofore there has been no complaint against the actions of the federal government, in any of its departments, as designed to violate the rights of the Southern States." The committee concluded that, while the possession of the government by a sec-

A VIEW OF ST. LOUIS.

tional party might lead to dangerous strife, the history of the country taught that there was not much to be feared from political parties in power. The report closed with seven resolutions evincing attachment to the Union; declaring the Crittenden Compromise (see CRITTENDEN, JOHN JORDAN) to be a proper basis for an adjustment; that a convention of the States to propose amendments to the Constitution would be useful in restoring peace and quiet to the country; that an attempt to "coerce the submission of the seceding States, or the employment of military force by the seceding States to assail the government of the United States," would inevitably lead to civil war; and earnestly entreated the national government and the Confederates to "stay the arms of military power."

The convention substantially adopted this report, March 19; and an amendment was agreed to recommending the withdrawal of the National troops from the forts within the borders of the seceding States where there is danger of collision between the State and National troops. After appointing delegates to a Border State convention, and giving power to a committee to call another session when it might seem necessary, the convention adjourned to the third Monday in December.

A Union convention, which had been held in February, 1861, and adjourned, reassembled at Jefferson City, on July 22, and proceeded to reorganize the civil government of the State, which had been broken up by the flight of the governor and other officers and the dispersion of the legislature, many of whom were now Confederate soldiers. By a vote of 56 to 25 the convention declared the various State offices vacant; also that the seats of the members of the General Assembly were vacant; and they proceeded to fill the ex-

ecutive offices to carry on a provisional government, and appointed the first Monday in November as the time for the people to elect all the State officers and a new Assembly. The convention issued an address to the people, in which they set forth the dangers with which the commonwealth was menaced by the acts of the Confederates, and exposed the treasonable acts of the governor and his associates. H. R. Gamble was appointed provisional governor; W. P. Hall, lieutenant-governor; and M. Oliver, secretary of state.

On July 31, 1861, Thomas C. Reynolds, lieutenant-governor of Missouri, issued a proclamation at New Madrid, as acting chief-magistrate in the "temporary absence," he said, "of Governor Jackson," in which he declared the absolute severance of Missouri from the Union. "Disregarding forms," he said, "and looking to realities, I view any ordinance for the separation from the North and union with the Confederate States as a mere outward ceremony to give notice to others of an act already consummated in the hearts of the people; consequently, no authority of the United States will hereafter be permitted in Missouri." This short way of transferring the allegiance of the people of a State from one power to another was followed by the announcement, in the same proclamation, that they were placed under the military rule of the Confederacy, and that by invitation of Governor Jackson, GEN. GIDEON J. PILLOW (*q. v.*), of Tennessee, had already entered Missouri with troops. The fugitive governor (Jackson) had been to Richmond to prepare the way for the admission of Missouri into the Confederacy. From New Madrid he proclaimed, Aug. 5, 1861, that Missouri was "a sovereign, free, and independent republic." On the 20th of the same month the Confederate Congress at Richmond passed an act to "aid the State of Missouri in repelling invasion by the United States, and to authorize the admission of said State as a member of the Confederate States of America." Measures were speedily adopted for the consummation of the alliance, and during a greater portion of the war men claiming to represent the people of Missouri occupied seats in the Confederate Congress at Richmond. The old legislature of Missouri met at Neosho, Oct. 21, and on the 28th passed an ordinance of secession. An act to provide for the defence of the State of Missouri was adopted Nov. 1, in which provision was made for the issue of what were called "defence bonds" to the amount of $10,000,000, payable in three, five, and seven years.

As before indicated, popular feeling in Missouri was opposed to secession, but the State authorities favored it. Civil

ON THE LEVEE, ST. LOUIS.

GENERAL LYON'S MARCH TO BOONEVILLE.

war was begun there by the governor (C. F. Jackson), who, on June 12, 1861, issued a call for the active service of 50,000 of the State militia, "for the purpose of repelling invasion, and for the protection of the lives, liberty, and property of the citizens." Gen. Nathaniel Lyon (*q. v.*), in command of the Department of Missouri, moved against Governor Jackson as soon as the latter had raised the standard of revolt at Jefferson City. He sent (July 12, 1861) a regiment of Missouri volunteers, under Col. Franz Sigel (*q. v.*) to occupy and protect the Pacific Railway from St. Louis to the Gasconade River, preparatory to a movement southward to oppose an invasion by Gen. Benjamin McCulloch, a Texan ranger, who had crossed the Arkansas frontier with about 800 men, and was marching on Springfield. Lyon left St. Louis (June 13) with 2,000 men, on two steamboats, for Jefferson City, to drive Jackson and Price out of it. The Missouri troops were commanded by Colonels Blair and Boernstein, the regulars by Captain Lathrop, and the artillery by Capt. J. Totten. The Confederates fled westward to a point near Booneville. Leaving Boernstein to hold the capital, Lyon followed, June 16. He overtook the fugitives not far from Booneville. Lyon landed his men and attacked the camp of the Confederates, commanded by Colonel Marmaduke, of the State forces, some of whose troops had made a citadel of a brick house. The camp was on an eminence. Lyon ascended this and opened a battle by firing into the midst of the Confederates. A sharp fight ensued. Two of Lyon's shells entered the brick house and drove out the inmates. Finally the Confederates fled. They lost a battery, twenty prisoners, several horses, and a considerable amount of military stores. Leaving a company to hold the deserted camp, Lyon pushed on to Booneville. The fugitives scattered, some going westward and some southward. With the latter went Governor Jackson. At Warsaw, on the Osage, he was joined (June 20) by 400 men under Colonel O'Kane, who had just captured and dispersed about the same number of the loyal Missouri Home Guards.

The governor and his followers continued their flight to the extreme southwestern corner of Missouri, where he was

joined by General Price, when the whole Confederate force amounted to full 3,000 men. At the same time Gen. J. G. Rains, a graduate of West Point, was hurrying forward to join Jackson with a considerable force, closely pursued by Major Sturgis, with a body of Kansas volunteers. Jackson was now satisfied that the whole of northern Missouri was lost to the cause of secession, and he endeavored to concentrate all the armed disloyal citizens, with McCulloch's men, in the southwestern part of the commonwealth. Assured by the aspect of affairs, and conciliatory and assuring proclamations from both General Lyon and Colonel Boernstein, the people became quieted, and the loyal State convention was called to assemble at Jefferson City on July 22, 1861. General Lyon remained at Booneville about a fortnight, preparing for a vigorous campaign in the southwest. He then held military control over the whole region northward of the Missouri River, and on July 1 there were at least 10,000 loyal troops in Missouri, and 10,000 more might have been there within forty-eight hours from camps in neighboring States. Sigel was pushing forward towards the borders of Kansas and Arkansas to open the campaign. The capture of the Confederate troops at St. Louis (*q. v.*) produced consternation among their friends in Jefferson City, where the Missouri legislature was in session. A bill was immediately passed by which the governor was authorized to receive a loan of $500,000 from the banks and to issue $1,000,000 in State bonds for war purposes. He was also authorized to purchase arms, and the whole military power of the State was placed under his control. Meanwhile General Harney had issued a proclamation denouncing the bill as an indirect secession ordinance, and null; yet, anxious for peace, he was ready to pursue a conciliatory policy. He entered into a compact (May 21) with Sterling Price (*q. v.*), a general of the State militia, which had for its object the securing of the neutrality of Missouri in the impending conflict. Price, in the name of the governor, pledged the power of the State to the maintenance of order. Harney, in the name of his government, agreed to make no military movements as long as order was preserved. The loyal people were alarmed, for they well knew the governor would violate his pledge. The national government did not sanction the compact. General Harney was relieved of his command, and on May 29 Lyon, who had been commissioned (May 16) a brigadier-general, was put in his place and made commander of the Department of Missouri. The purse and sword of Missouri were in the hands of the governor, and he defied the national government. He determined to wield the power of the State in favor of the Confederacy. Finally General Lyon and others held a conference (June 11) with Governor Jackson. He demanded, as a vital condition of pacification, the disbanding of the Home Guards—loyal citizens—throughout the State, and that no National troops should be allowed to set foot on the soil of Missouri. Lyon refused compliance, and on the following day the governor raised the standard of revolt, as before narrated.

Strengthened by the successes of Pope (see Blackwater, Battle at the), Gen. Henry W. Halleck, who had succeeded to the command of the Department of Missouri, prepared to put forth more vigorous efforts to purge the State of Confederates. On Dec. 3, 1861, he declared martial law in St. Louis, and afterwards extended it to all railroads and their vicinities. Meanwhile Price, being promised reinforcements from Arkansas, moved back to Springfield, where he concentrated about 12,000 men, and prepared to spend the winter there. Halleck sent Gen. S. R. Curtis to drive him out of the State. Curtis was assisted by Generals Davis, Sigel, Asboth, and Prentiss. They moved in three columns. Early in February, 1862, Price fled into Kansas, whither he was pursued by Curtis; and Halleck wrote to his government, late in February, that he had "purged Missouri," and that the flag of the Union was "waving in triumph over the soil of Arkansas." In accomplishing this work no less than sixty battles—most of them skirmishes—had been fought on Missouri soil, beginning with Booneville, at the middle of June, 1861, and ending at the middle of February, 1862. These conflicts resulted in the loss, to both par-

ties, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, of about 11,000 men.

Emboldened by the failure of the RED RIVER EXPEDITION (*q. v.*), the Confederates, by raiding bands, awed the Unionists in Arkansas into inactivity, and gave General Price an opportunity, early in the fall of 1864, to invade Missouri again, this time chiefly for a political purpose. Secret societies in sympathy with the KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE (*q. v.*) had been formed in Missouri and neighboring Southern States, whose object was to give aid to the Confederate cause. Price had been promised 20,000 recruits if he should enter Missouri with a respectable military force. He and General Shelby crossed the Missouri border early in September with 20,000 followers, and pushed on to Pilot Knob, half-way to St. Louis. But the promised recruits did not appear. The vigilant Rosecrans, then in command of the Department of the Missouri, had discovered Price's plans and, by some arrests, had so frightened the remainder that they prudently remained in concealment. Price was disappointed; and he soon perceived that a web of great peril was gathering around him. General Ewing, with a brigade of National troops struck him an astounding blow at Pilot Knob. Soon afterwards these and other troops under Gen. A. J. Smith and General Mower sent Price flying westward towards Kansas, closely pursued. This chase was enlivened by several skirmishes, and late in November Price was a fugitive in western Arkansas with a broken and dispirited army. This was the last invasion of Missouri by the Confederates. In the expulsion of Price from Missouri GEN. ALFRED PLEASONTON (*q. v.*) bore a conspicuous part. The total loss of the Nationals during the invasion was 346 killed and wounded. Price left Missouri much weaker than when he entered it.

On Jan. 6, 1865, another convention assembled at St. Louis and framed a new constitution, which was ratified by a popular vote in June following. During the war Missouri furnished to the National army 108,773 troops. In 1869 the legislature of Missouri ratified the Fifteenth Amendment to the national Constitution. Population in 1890, 2,679,184; in 1900, 3,106,665. See UNITED STATES, MISSOURI, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNOR.

William Clark	assumes duties	July,	1813

STATE GOVERNORS.

Alexander McNair	term begins	Sept. 19,	1820
Frederick Bates	"	Nov.,	1824
Abraham J. Williams	acting	Aug. 1,	1825
Gen. John Miller	term begins	Nov.,	"
Daniel Dunklin	"	"	1832
Lilburn W. Boggs	"	"	1836
Thomas Reynolds (Dem.)	"	"	1840
M. M. Marmaduke	acting	Feb. 9,	1844
John C. Edwards (Dem.)	term begins	Nov.,	"
Austin A. King (Dem.)	"	"	1848
Sterling Price (Dem.)	"	Dec.,	1852
Trusten Polk (Dem.)	"	"	1856
Hancock Jackson	acting	March,	1857
Robert M. Stewart (Dem.)	term begins	Dec.,	"
Claiborne F. Jackson (Dem.)	"	Jan. 4,	1861
H. R. Gamble (provisional)	elected	July 31,	"
Willard P. Hall	acting	Jan. 31,	1864
Thomas C. Fletcher (Rep.)	term begins	"	1865
Joseph W. McClurg (Rep.)	"	"	1869
R. Gratz Brown (Lib.)	"	"	1871
Silas Woodson (Dem.)	"	"	1873
Charles H. Hardin (Dem.)	"	"	1875
John S. Phelps (Dem.)	"	"	1877
Thos. T. Crittenden (Dem.)	"	"	1881
John S. Marmaduke (Dem.)	"	"	1885
Albert G. Morehouse	acting	Dec. 28,	1887
David R. Francis (Dem.)	term begins	Jan.,	1889
William J. Stone (Dem.)	"	"	1893
Lou V. Stephens (Dem.)	"	"	1897
A. M. Dockery (Dem.)	"	"	1901
Joseph W. Folk (Dem.)	"	"	1905

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
David Barton	17th to 21st	1821 to 1831
Thomas H. Benton	17th " 31st	1821 " 1851
Alexander Buckner	22d	1831 " 1833
Lewis F. Linn	23d to 27th	1833 " 1843
David R. Atchison	28th " 33d	1843 " 1856
Henry S. Geyer	32d " 34th	1851 " 1857
James Stephen Green	34th " 36th	1857 " 1861
Trusten Polk	35th " 37th	1857 " 1862
Waldo P. Johnson	37th	1861 " 1862
John B. Henderson	37th to 40th	1862 " 1869
Robert Wilson	37th	1862
B. Gratz Brown	38th to 39th	1863 to 1867
Charles D. Drake	40th " 41st	1867 " 1870
Francis P. Blair, Jr.	41st " 42d	1871 " 1873
Carl Schurz	41st " 42d	1869 " 1875
Lewis F. Bogy	43d " 45th	1873 " 1877
Francis M. Cockrell	44th " 58th	1875 " 1905
David H. Armstrong	45th	1877 " 1879
George G. Vest	46th to 57th	1879 " 1903
William J. Stone	58th " ——	1903 " ——
William Warner	59th " ——	1905 " ——

Missouri Compromise, THE. In 1817 Missouri Territory petitioned Congress for admission as a State. A bill was introduced into Congress (Feb. 13, 1819) for that purpose, when James Tallmadge, Jr., of New York, moved to insert a clause prohibiting any further introduction of slaves within its domains, and granting freedom to the children of those already there, on their attaining the age of twenty-five years. This motion brought the slavery question again before Congress

most conspicuously. After a three days' vehement debate, it was carried, 87 to 76. As a companion to the Missouri bill, another to organize the Territory of Arkansas was introduced (Feb. 16). When it was taken up, John W. Taylor, of New York, moved to add a provision that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude should hereafter be introduced into any part of the Territories of the United States north of lat. 36° 30′ N., the northern boundary of the proposed new Territory of Arkansas. Arthur Livermore, of New Hampshire, who had been zealous for the Missouri restrictions, conceived that this proposition had been made "in the true spirit of compromise," but thought that line of division not sufficiently favorable to freedom. Gen. W. H. Harrison agreed to the necessity of some such partition, but he proposed a line due west from the mouth of the Des Moines River, thus giving up to slavery the State of Missouri and all territory south of that latitude. This partition policy was warmly opposed by a large number of members of Congress from the North and the South, declaring themselves hostile to any compromise whatever. Slavery was either right or wrong, and there could be no compromise. Taylor withdrew his motion.

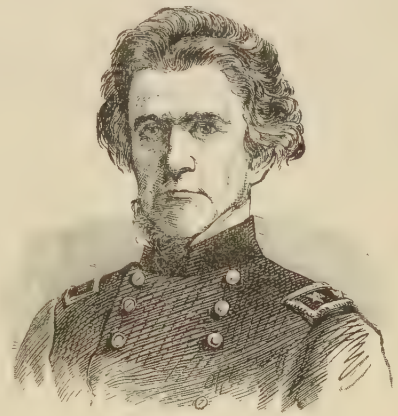
The proposition for a compromise which was finally agreed to was originated by a Northern member, and not by Henry Clay, of Kentucky, as is generally supposed. This Missouri bill caused one of the most exciting debates on the slavery question ever before known in the national legislature. Extreme doctrines and foolish threats were uttered on both sides. Southern members threatened a dissolution of the Union. There was much adroit management by the party leaders, who used great dexterity in trying to avoid a compromise—for one party insisted upon Missouri entering, if at all, as a free-labor State, and the other party insisted that it should enter as a slave-labor State. But compromise seemed to be the only door through which Missouri might enter; and, by adroit management, a compromise bill was carried, March 2, 1820, by a vote of 134 against 42. John Randolph denounced it as "a dirty bargain," and the eighteen Northern men who voted for it as "doughfaces." There was an almost solid North against admitting Missouri as a slave-labor State. President Monroe consulted his cabinet concerning the constitutionality of the act. The matter was allowed to go over until the next session, and it occupied much time during that session. At length Henry Clay moved a joint committee (February, 1821) to consider whether or not it was expedient to admit Missouri into the Union; and if not, what provision adapted to her actual condition ought to be made. The motion prevailed—101 to 55—all of the Southern members, excepting Randolph and two or three followers, voting for it. The committee was appointed, and soon reported. The closing decision on the Missouri question was finally reached by the adoption of a compromise, Feb. 27, 1821, substantially as proposed by Taylor, of New York, in 1819—namely, that in all territory north of lat. 36° 30′ N. (outside the boundary of the State of Missouri) slavery should not exist, but should be forever prohibited in the region north of that line. But Missouri was admitted as a slave-labor State. In the course of the later debates there was much angry feeling displayed, and unwise men, North and South, uttered the cry of disunion. A member from Georgia said, pathetically, in the course of the debate: "A fire has been kindled which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, and which only seas of blood can extinguish." The "seas of blood" shed in the Civil War did alone extinguish it.

When President Monroe hesitated about signing the Missouri Compromise act, and laid the matter before his cabinet, he submitted two questions to his advisers: Has Congress the power to prohibit slavery in a Territory? and Was the term "forever," in the prohibitive clause in the bill, to be understood as referring only to the territorial condition of the district to which it related, or was it an attempt to extend the prohibition of slavery to such States as might be erected therefrom? The cabinet was unanimous in the affirmative on the first question. On the second question, John Quincy Adams (Secretary of State) thought the term meant *forever*, and not to be limited to the existence of the territorial condition of the district. Others limited it to the territorial condition—a territorial "forever"—and not

interfering with the right of any State formed from it to establish or prohibit slavery. Calhoun wished not to have this question mooted, and at his suggestion the second question was modified into the mere inquiry, Is the provision, as it stands in the bill, constitutional or not? This was essentially a different question. To it all could answer yes, and did so answer in writing. This writing was ordered to be deposited in the archives of state, but it afterwards mysteriously disappeared. The act was then signed by the President, but with a different understanding from that which had been adopted by Congress.

Missouri River, The. Recent investigations seem to make it certain that the Mississippi River, from its confluence with the Missouri, should be called the Missouri; and that the Mississippi proper, above that confluence, is a branch of the Missouri. Above their confluence the Mississippi drains 169,000 square miles, and the Missouri drains 518,000 square miles. From that point to Lake Itasca the length of the Mississippi is 1,330 miles; while that of the Missouri, from its sources in Madison, Red Rock, and Gallatin lakes, is about 3,047 miles. At the confluence of the rivers the Mississippi has a mean discharge of 105,000 cubic feet of water a second, and the Missouri 120,000 cubic feet a second. Above that confluence the Missouri is navigable to Fort Benton, Mont., by good-sized steamboats, a distance of 2,682 miles, or more than twice the length of the Mississippi from Lake Itasca to its confluence with the Missouri. Reckoning the Mississippi below the confluence as the Missouri makes the latter, to the Gulf—4,347 miles—the longest river in the world.

Mitchel, Ormsby McKnight, astronomer and soldier; born in Union county, Ky., Aug. 28, 1810; graduated at West Point in 1829, and was assistant Professor of Mathematics there until 1831. He became a lawyer, and for ten years (1834–44) was Professor of Mathematics, Philosophy, and Astronomy in Cincinnati College. When an observatory was established at Cincinnati he became its director. Soon afterwards he became engineer of a railroad, and from 1859 to 1861 he was director of the Dudley Observatory at Albany, N. Y. Professor Mitchel was a very popular lecturer on astronomy, but the breaking out of the Civil War turned his extraordinary energies into another field of effort. In August, 1861, he was made



ORMSBY McKNIGHT MITCHEL.

a brigadier-general of volunteers and ordered to the Department of the Ohio.

The Confederate forces under Gen. A. S. Johnston, when they passed through Nashville (*q. v.*) pushed on to Murfreesboro, and there, taking a southwesterly course, joined the forces under Beauregard at Corinth, in northern Mississippi. Gen. Ormsby M. Mitchel was sent by General Buell, with a part of his force, in the direction of Huntsville, Ala., to seize and hold the Memphis and Charleston Railway at that place. He performed this task with most wonderful vigor. With engines and cars captured at Bowling Green he entered Nashville, and pushed on southward. He reached the southern boundary of Tennessee on April 10, crossed the State-line the same day, and entered northern Alabama. He had passed through a very hostile region, but now saw signs of loyalty. Pushing on to Huntsville, before dawn, April 11, while the unsuspecting inhabitants were soundly slumbering, he surprised and captured the place. He did not tarry long there. Finding himself in possession of an ample supply of rolling-stock, he speedily organized two expeditions to operate along the line of the railway each way from

Huntsville. Colonel Sill led the expedition eastward to Stevenson, and Colonel Turchin the other westward to Tuscumbia. Mitchell was promoted major-general in April, 1862. In September he was made commander of the Department of the South, with his headquarters at Hilton Head, where he was working with his usual energy in preparations for a vigorous campaign, when he died with yellow fever, Oct. 30, 1862.

Mitchell, DONALD GRANT (pen-name IK MARVEL), author; born in Norwich, Conn., April 12, 1822; studied at Judge Hall's Ellington School in 1830–37, and graduated at Yale College in 1841. After spending three years in farm-work he studied law in New York in 1846. He was United States consul in Venice in 1853–55. Returning to the United States, he settled on his farm at Edgewood and devoted himself to literature.

Mitchell, JOHN, physician; born in England; came to America and settled in Urbana, Va., in 1700; devoted much time to botanical researches and made valuable contributions to the knowledge of that science. His publications relating to the history of the United States include *A Map of the British and French Dominions in North America; The Contest in America between Great Britain and France;* and *The Present State of Great Britain and North America.* He died in England in March, 1768.

Mitchell, JOHN, labor leader; born in Braidwood, Ill., Feb. 4, 1869; worked in coal mines in 1882; joined the Knights of Labor in 1885; travelled in the West, where he mined coal till 1890; became secretary-treasurer of the sub-district of the United Mine Workers of America in 1895, and its president in 1898; vice-president of the American Federation of Labor in 1898; and took personal charge of the great strike in the anthracite-coal mines in 1902.

Mitchell, JOHN HIPPLE, legislator; born in Washington county, Pa., June 22, 1835; removed to Portland, Or., in 1860; State Senator, 1862–66 (president, 1864); professor of medical jurisprudence, Williamette University, 1867–71; United States Senator, 1873–79, 1885–97, and 1901–07.

Mitchell, MARIA, astronomer; born in Nantucket, Mass., Aug. 1, 1818; inherited from her father, William Mitchell (who died in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in April, 1869), a fondness for astronomical studies and became a valuable assistant to him in the study of astronomy when she was quite young. Examining nebulæ and searching for comets, her industry and efforts were rewarded when, on Oct. 1, 1847, she discovered a telescopic comet, for which she received a gold medal from the King of Denmark. She was afterwards employed in making observations connected with the United States coast survey, and for many years assisted in the compilation of the *Nautical Almanac.* In the spring of 1865 she was appointed Professor of Astronomy and superintendent of the observatory at Vassar College, and entered upon her duties in September. She resigned in 1888. Professor Mitchell was a member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, being the first woman admitted to that body. She received the honorary degrees of Ph.D. and LL.D. She died in Lynn, Mass., June 28, 1889.

Mitchell, NAHUM, jurist; born in East Bridgewater, Mass., Feb. 12, 1769; graduated at Harvard College in 1789; admitted to the bar in 1792; member of Congress in 1803–5, and attained prominence as a jurist in his native State. He published a *History of the Early Settlements of Bridgewater,* a valuable contribution to the history of New England. He died in East Bridgewater, Mass., Aug. 1, 1853.

Mitchell, SILAS WEIR, physician and author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Feb. 15, 1830; was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, and graduated at the Jefferson Medical College in 1850. He began practice in Philadelphia, and later became renowned as a physiologist, but more especially as a neurologist. In 1865 he was elected a member of the National Academy of Sciences, and for many years was identified with the leading scientific societies of the United States and Europe. Dr. Mitchell was also widely known as a poet and novelist. His publications include *Treatises on Neurology; Serpent Poisons; Comparative Physiology;* many papers on neurological subjects; *Hepzibah Guinnes; Far in the*

Forest; Characteristics; Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker; Adventures of François, etc.

Mitchill, SAMUEL LATHAM, scientist; born in North Hempstead, Long Island, N. Y., Aug. 20, 1764; studied medicine with Dr. Samuel Bard, but turned his attention to law, and began a public career by serving as commissioner (1788) to treat with the IROQUOIS INDIANS (*q. v.*) in New York State for the purchase of their lands. In 1790 he was in the legislature, and at the age of twenty-eight became Professor of Chemistry, Natural History, and Philosophy in Columbia College. Dr. Mitchill was ever ready to labor for the enlargement of the bounds of human knowledge, and to advance the interests of mankind. He was one of the founders of the Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, Manufactures, and Useful Arts, and his scientific labors made him famous at home and abroad when he was little past thirty years of age. In 1797 he assisted in establishing the *Medical Repository,* a magazine which he edited sixteen years. He was a member of the national House of Representatives from 1801 to 1804, and a United States Senator from 1804 to 1809. From 1808 to 1820 he was Professor of Natural History in the New York College of Physicians and Surgeons; of Botany and Materia Medica from 1820 to 1826; and was vice-president of the Rutgers Medical School. With Drs. Hosack and Williamson he founded the New York Literary and Philosophical Society. Dr. Mitchill possessed a very retentive memory, and acquired vast stores of learning. He believed in Fulton's ability to establish navigation by steam, promoted his interests in the legislature, and was one of the friends who accompanied him on his experimental voyage from New York to Albany in September, 1807. He died in New York City, Sept. 7, 1831.

Mobile, CITY OF. Under the act of cession of Louisiana from France the United States claimed all of west Florida, including Mobile. A large portion of that territory had been annexed to the Territory of Mississippi, and in the winter and spring of 1812, when war had been determined upon, the importance to the United States of possessing Mobile was very apparent. In March General Wilkinson, in command of the United States troops in the Southwest, was ordered to take possession of it. Wilkinson sent Commodore Shaw, with gunboats, to occupy Mobile Bay and cut off communications with Pensacola. Lieutenant-Colonel Bowyer, then with troops at Fort Stoddart, was ordered to be prepared to march on Mobile at a moment's notice for the purpose of investing the fort there. Wilkinson left Mobile March 29 on the sloop *Alligator,* and,

OPENING OF THE BATTLE OF MOBILE BAY.

after a perilous voyage, reached Petit Coquille, when he sent a courier with orders to Bowyer to march immediately. Wilkinson's troops arrived in Mobile Bay April 12, landed the next morning, and at noon 600 men appeared before Fort Charlotte, commanded by Capt. Cayetano Perez, and demanded its surrender. On the 15th the Spaniards evacuated the fort and retired to Pensacola, and the Americans took possession. Placing nine cannon in battery on Mobile Point, Wilkinson marched to the Perdido. There he began the erection of a fort, but the place was soon abandoned and another was begun and finished on Mobile Point and called Fort Bowyer, in honor of the brave lieutenant-colonel of that name. Such was the beginning of a movement which resulted in the acquisition of all Florida by the Americans.

In 1864, after the destruction of the ALABAMA (*q. v.*), it was determined to seal up the ports of Mobile and Wilmington against English blockade-runners. These were the only ports then open to them. Admiral Farragut was sent for that purpose to the entrance of Mobile Bay, 30 miles below the city of Mobile, with a fleet of eighteen vessels, four of them iron-clad, while a co-operating land force, 5,000 strong, under GEN. GORDON GRANGER (*q. v.*), was sent from New Orleans to Dauphin Island. Farragut entered the bay Aug. 5, 1864. That entrance is divided into two passages by Dauphin Island. On the eastern side of this island was Fort Gaines, commanding the main entrance; and southeasterly from it was Fort Morgan, a still stronger work, with a light-house near it. These forts the Confederates had well armed and manned, and within the bay lay a Confederate flotilla under Admiral Buchanan.

His flag-ship was the *Tennessee*, a powerful ram, and it was accompanied by three ordinary gunboats. Farragut lashed his wooden ships together in couples, his own flag-ship, the *Hartford*, being tethered to the *Metacomet*. Wishing to have a general oversight of the battle, he ascended the rigging, when Captain Drayton, fearing he might be dislodged by a sudden shock, sent up a man with a line, which he passed around the admiral and made it fast. In this position he went into the battle, boldly sailing in between the forts, and delivering terrific broadsides of grape-shot, first upon Fort Morgan. The monitor *Tecumseh*, which led the National vessels, was struck by the explosion of a torpedo directly under her turret, carrying down with her Commander Craven and nearly all of his officers and crew—only seventeen of 130 being saved. Farragut ordered the *Hartford* to push on and the others to follow, unmindful of torpedoes. The forts were silenced by the storm of grape-shot poured upon them, but as the National fleet entered the bay the Confederate vessels opened upon them. The ram *Tennessee* rushed at the *Hartford*, but missed her. The fire of the three gunboats was concentrated on the flag-ship. The fight was short. One of the Confederate gunboats was captured, and the other two sought safety under the guns of the fort. Under cover of night one of them

CAPTURE OF FORT MORGAN, MOBILE BAY.

escaped to Mobile. Believing the battle over at dusk, Farragut had anchored his vessels, when, at nearly 9 P.M., the ram *Tennessee* came rushing at the *Hartford* under a full head of steam. The other National vessels were ordered to close upon her. A tremendous fight with the monster at short range occurred, and very soon the *Tennessee*, badly injured, surrendered. Her commander was severely wounded. The Confederate squadron was destroyed. The forts were assailed by land and water the next day, and the three were surrendered, the last (Fort Morgan) on the morning of Aug. 23. With this victory the government came into possession of 104 guns and 1,464 men, and effectually closed the port of Mobile to blockade-runners. This victory, and that at Atlanta, soon afterwards, together with the hearty response given by the people of the free-labor States to the call of the President (July 18, 1864) for 300,000 men, gave assurance that the Civil War was nearly ended.

Capture of Mobile. Gen. J. E. Johnston said Mobile was the best-fortified place in the Confederacy. It was garrisoned by 15,000 men, including troops on the east side of the bay and 1,000 negro laborers subject to the command of the engineers. The department was then (1865) in command of Gen. Richard Taylor, son of President Taylor. For several months after the harbor of Mobile was sealed there was comparative quiet in that region; but when Sherman had finished his triumphal march from Atlanta to the sea the government determined to repossess Alabama, beginning with a movement against Mobile, and by other operations in the interior. GEN. EDWARD R. S. CANBY (*q. v.*), commanding the West Mississippi Army, was charged with the conduct of the expedition against Mobile, and the co-operating force was that of Gen. J. H. WILSON, the eminent cavalry leader, under the direction of General Thomas. Early in 1865 Gen. A. J. Smith's corps joined Canby at New Orleans, Feb. 21. That corps went to Dauphin Island, at the entrance to Mobile Bay, where a siege-train was organized, consisting of ten batteries. Knipe's cavalry, attached to the corps, marched overland from New Orleans. Everything was in readiness for an attack on Mobile by the middle of March, with from 25,000 to 30,000 troops, including cavalry; and the West Gulf Squadron, under Admiral Thatcher, was ready to co-operate. It was so strongly fortified by three lines of works on its land side that it was determined to flank the post by a movement of the main army up the eastern side of the bay. The 13th Army Corps began a march on the 17th from Fort Morgan over a swampy region in heavy rain, and the 16th Corps crossed the bay from Fort Gaines and joined the other. At the same time a feint was made on Mobile to attract attention from this movement. General Steele, with Hawkins's division of negro troops and some cavalry, had been marching from Pensacola to Blakely, 10 miles north of Mobile, to induce the belief that Montgomery was Canby's real objective point. On March 25 this force encountered and defeated 800 Alabama cavalry under General Clanton. The Confederates lost about 200 men killed and wounded, and 275 made prisoners. Steele found very little opposition afterwards until he reached the front of Blakely. The Nationals on the east side of the bay pushed on to Spanish Fort, 7 miles east of Mobile. It was invested, March 27, but its garrison of nearly 3,000 of Hood's late army, with its neighbors, made it a stout antagonist, willing to give blow for blow. Warmer and warmer waxed the fight on that day, and before sunset a tremendous artillery duel was in progress, in which gunboats of both parties joined, and kept it up all night. Then a siege was formally begun (March 28). The Nationals finally brought to bear upon the fort sixteen mortars, twenty heavy guns, and six field-pieces. Towards sunset, April 8, Canby began a general assault by a consecutive fire from all his heavy guns, his field-pieces, and his gunboats. An Iowa regiment, encountering some Texas sharp-shooters, charged upon and overpowered them. Sweeping along the rear of the intrenchments, they captured 300 yards of them, with 350 prisoners and three battle-flags. This exploit made the Confederates evacuate the fort, and by 2 A.M. the next day it was in possession of the Nationals. The garrison, excepting 600 made prisoners, escaped. It had expected assistance from Forrest, but Wilson was keeping him

MAP OF DEFENCES AROUND MOBILE.

But the army found no enemy to fight, for Gen. D. H. Maury, in command there, had ordered the evacuation of the city; and on the 11th, after sinking two powerful rams, he fled up the Alabama River with 9,000 men on gunboats and transports. On the 12th General Granger and Rear-Admiral Thatcher demanded the surrender of the city. This was formally done the same evening by the civil authorities, and on the following day Veatch's division entered the city and hoisted the National flag on the public buildings. Generals Granger and Canby entered the city soon afterwards. A large amount of cotton and several steamboats were burned by order away. The spoils were thirty heavy guns and a large quantity of munitions of war. Forts Huger and Tracy were also captured, April 11. The key to Mobile was now in the hands of the Nationals. Torpedoes were fished up, and the National squadron approached the city. The of the military authorities, before the city was given up. The "repossession" of Mobile cost the national government 2,000 men and much treasure. Seven vessels of war had been destroyed by torpedoes. During this campaign of about three weeks the army and navy captured about

CONFLAGRATION IN MOBILE.

army moved on Blakely, and on April 9 the works there were attacked and carried. Meanwhile the 13th Corps had been taken across the bay to attack Mobile. 5,000 men, nearly 400 cannon, and a vast amount of public property. The value of ammunition and commissary stores found in Mobile was valued at $2,000,000.

Mobilian, or Floridian, Indians, a nation composed of a large number of tribes; ranking next to the Algonquians in the extent of their domain and power when Europeans discovered them. They were superior to most of the Algonquians in the attainments which lead to civilization, and they were evidently related to the inhabitants of Central and South America. The domain of the Mobilians extended along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River, more than 600 miles. It stretched northward along the Atlantic coast to the mouth of the Cape Fear River, and up the Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio, comprising a large portion of the present cotton-growing States. A greater portion of Georgia, the whole of Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, and parts of South Carolina, Tennessee, and Kentucky were included in their territory. The nation was divided into three grand confederacies—viz., Muscoghees, or Creeks, Choctaws, and Chickasaws. See these titles respectively.

Modoc Indians, a tribe that originally formed a part of the Klamath nation. Their name means "enemies," and was given to them by others. The Modocs were first found on the south shore of Lake Klamath, in California, when both sexes were clothed in skins. In their wars they held captives as slaves, and traded in them. The early emigrants to California encountered them as hostiles, and they massacred many white people. In 1852 Ben Wright, who sought revenge, invited a band of Modocs to a peaceful feast, when he and his men murdered forty-one out of forty-six Indians who were there. The Modocs never forgave the outrage, and war with them was kept up at intervals until 1864, when, by a treaty, they ceded their lands to the United States, and agreed to go on a reservation. The treaty was not ratified by the government until 1870, nor the reservation set apart until 1871. The Modocs meanwhile had gone upon the Klamath reservation, but it was so sterile that they could not live there. They were cheated by the government and harassed by the Klamaths, who were anciently their enemies, and some went to another reservation. Unfortunately some Klamaths were put with them, and trouble continued, when two Modoc bands left the reservation. A clan known as Captain Jack's band were uneasy and turbulent. Their tribe complained of them, and in the spring of 1872 they were ordered back to the Klamath reservation. They refused to go, and late in November (1872) United States troops and citizens of Oregon attacked their two camps on opposite sides of a river. The people were repulsed with loss, and the united Modocs, retreating, massacred some white settlers on the way, and took refuge in the Lava Beds, a volcanic region difficult for a foe to enter if moderately defended. In June, 1873, General Wheaton attempted to drive the Modocs from their stronghold, but could not penetrate within 3 miles of them, after the loss of several men. General Gillem made an equally unsuccessful attempt to dislodge them. In the mean time the government had appointed a commission of inquiry, and clothed it with power to adjust all difficulties. It met the Modocs in conference on April 11, 1873, when the Indians killed Gen. Edward R. S. Canby (*q. v.*) and Dr. Thomas, two of the commissioners, and wounded Mr. Meacham, another commissioner. After this act of treachery, operations against the Modocs were pressed with vigor. A long and stubborn resistance ensued, but finally Captain Jack and his band were compelled to surrender. The chief and three of his prominent associates were tried by a military commission and executed at Fort Klamath, Oct. 3, 1873. The remainder were placed on the Quapaw reservation, in the Indian Territory. Jack's band numbered 148; those left at the Klamath agency, and who took no part in hostilities, numbered about 100.

Moffet, Samuel Erasmus, journalist; born in St. Louis, Mo., Nov. 5, 1860; educated at the universities of California and Columbia. In 1885 he became an editorial writer; and was connected at different times with the San Francisco *Post*, San Francisco *Examiner*, and the New York *Journal*. His publications include *The Tariff: What It Is and What It Does; Chapters on Silver;* and *Suggestions on Government*.

Mohawk Indians, the most celebrated of the Five Nations (see Iroquois Confederacy). Their proper name was Agmegue, and they called themselves, as

a tribe, She-bears. That animal was their totemic symbol. The neighboring tribes called them Mahaqua, which name the English pronounced Mohawk. Champlain and his followers, French and Indians from Canada, fought them in northern New York in 1609. At Norman's Kill, below the site of Albany, the Dutch made a treaty with them in 1698, which was lasting; and the English, also, after the conquest of New Netherland, gained their friendship. The French Jesuits gained many converts among them, and three villages of Roman Catholics on the St. Lawrence were largely filled with the Mohawks. They served the English against the Canadians in the French and Indian War, and in the Revolutionary War, influenced by Sir William Johnson and his brother-in-law Brant, they made savage war on the patriots, causing the valleys in central New York to be called the "Dark and Bloody Ground." After that struggle, the greater portion of them removed to Grand River, 50 or 60 miles west of the Niagara River, where they still are. Many of them are Christians. The Common Prayer-book has been translated into their language, one edition by ELEAZAR WILLIAMS (*q. v.*), the "Lost Prince." Tradition says that at the formation of the confederacy Hiawatha said, "You, the Mohawks, sitting under the shadow of the 'Great Tree,' whose roots sink deep into the earth, and whose branches spread over a vast country, shall be the first nation, because you are warlike and mighty." The confederacy being called "the long house," the Mohawks were denominated the "eastern door."

The Mohawks in eastern New York made frequent incursions into Canada. Finally, in 1661, M. de Tracy, French viceroy of New France, although over seventy years of age, led a military expedition against them. He was accompanied by M. de Courcelles, governor of Canada. A regiment had lately been sent to Canada from France. With twenty-eight companies of foot, and all the militia of the colony of Quebec, he marched 700 miles into the Mohawk country in the dead of winter, easily crossing the swamps and streams on bridges of ice, and burrowing in the snow at night. The Mohawks, on the approach of the French, retired deeper into the forest with their women and children, and all the invaders accomplished was to burn several villages and murder some sachems.

In the spring of 1667 the exasperated Canadians resolved to chastise them for their perfidy. De Tracy again set out in person at the head of 1,200 white soldiers and 100 Indian allies, passed down Lake Champlain in boats and canoes, and in October marched through the Mohawk country, burning the villages and setting up the arms of France at conspicuous places. On his return to Quebec De Tracy sent back prisoners with terms of peace for the Mohawks to consider. The English, made anxious by these events, tried to persuade the Mohawks to remain faithful to them; but the latter, remembering how well the French could fight, and also the fearful sight of their burning villages, their women and children hiding in the woods, and their dead warriors, would not listen to the appeals of the English. When the warm weather came deputations from the Mohawks and Oneidas appeared in Quebec and promised submission. The Indians brought their families with them to attest their sincerity, and a treaty was made by which the Mohawks promised allegiance to the French monarch. They also consented to listen to the teachings of the Jesuit missionaries. This treaty left the whole northern frontier exposed to incursions by the French and Indians.

In 1693 Count Frontenac, governor of Canada, unable to effect a treaty of peace with the Five Nations, meditated a blow on the Mohawks. In midwinter he collected an army of about 700 French and Indians, well supplied with everything for a campaign at that season. They left Montreal Jan. 15, and after several hardships reached the Mohawk Valley early in February, and captured three castles. At the third castle they found some Indians engaged in a war-dance. There a severe conflict ensued, in which the French lost about thirty men. In the expedition they captured about 300 Indians in the English interest, and were making their way back to Canada when they were pursued by Colonel Schuyler and several skirmishes ensued. In the Scarron (Schroon) Valley the pursuit ended. The French had desired to kill their prisoners to facilitate

their retreat, but their Indian allies would not consent. Of these Schuyler recaptured about fifty. The Mohawks called

MOHAWK CHURCH.

Colonel Schuyler "Great Swift Hero," because of his promptness in coming to their relief. The Mohawks, discouraged by their heavy loss, were disposed to make a treaty of peace with the French, but Schuyler prevented it.

The governors of Canada during the Revolutionary War promised those of the Six Nations who joined the British in that war that they should be well provided for at its close. In the treaty of peace (1783) no such promise was kept. At that time the Mohawks, with Brant at their head, were temporarily residing on the American side of the Niagara River, below Lewiston. The Senecas offered them a home in the Genesee Valley, but Brant and his followers had resolved not to reside within the United States. He went to Quebec to claim from Governor Haldimand a fulfilment of his and Carleton's promises. The Mohawks chose a large tract of land, comprising 200 square miles on the Ouise or Grand River, or 6 miles on each side of that stream from its source to its mouth. It is chiefly a beautiful and fertile region. Of all that splendid domain, the Mohawks now retain only a comparatively small tract in the vicinity of Brantford, on the Grand River. In 1830 they surrendered to the government the town-plot of Brantford, when it was surveyed and sold to actual settlers. On their present reservation is a church built of wood in 1783, a plain, unpretending structure. It is furnished with a silver communion service which Queen Anne presented to the Mohawks in 1712. Upon each piece is engraved the royal arms of England and the monogram of the Queen, "A. R." —Anna Regina—with the following inscription: "The Gift of her Majesty, Anne, by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and of her Plantations in North America, Queen, to her Indian Chapel of the Mohawks."

Mohawk Valley, The. The valley of the Mohawk River, extending from near the middle of the State of New York to the Hudson River, is one of the most interesting historical regions in the republic. Within it, according to tradition, was formed the powerful Iroquois Confederacy (*q. v.*), the members of which have been called "The Romans of the Western World." French mission-

COMMUNION PLATE PRESENTED BY QUEEN ANNE.

aries spread through the valley a knowledge of the Christian religion, and 100 years before the Revolutionary War it was the scene of sharp conflicts between the natives and intruding Europeans. Within its borders, before that time, its chief inhabitant (William Johnson) received the honors of knighthood, and ruled not only over a vast private manorial domain, but also over Indian tribes of the confederacy, as their official superintendent. When the Revolution broke out his family were the leaders of the adherents to the crown in the northern regions of New York; and his son, Sir John, who inherited his title and his possessions, with a large number of Scotch retainers and other white people, organized a corps of loyalists called "Johnson Greens," which, with Indians under Brant, his kinsman by marriage, carried on a distressing warfare against the patriots. Later, the Erie Canal, the most gigantic single work of internal improvement in the United States, was dug the whole length of the valley, and became the highway for a vast commerce between the Western States and the Atlantic Ocean.

Mohegan, or Mohican, Indians, an Algonquian family found by the Dutch on the Hudson River above the Highlands. The name was also given to several independent tribes on Long Island, and in the country between the Lenni-Lenapes, or Delawares (see DELAWARE INDIANS), and the New England Indians. Of this family the Pequods, who inhabited eastern Connecticut, were the most powerful, and exercised authority over thirteen cantons on Long Island. They received the Dutch kindly, and gave them lands on which they erected Fort Orange, now Albany. They were then at war with the Mohawks, and when furiously attacked by the latter the Mohegans fled to the valley of the Connecticut, whither a part of the nation had gone before, and settled on the Thames. This portion was the Pequods (see PEQUOD INDIANS). A part of them, led by Uncas, seceded, and these "rebels" aided the English in their war with the Pequods in 1637. The bulk of the nation finally returned to the Hudson, and kept up a communication with the French in Canada, who called them Loups (wolves), which is the meaning of Mohegan. When the English and French began their great struggle for the mastery in America (about 1690), the Hudson Mohegans made peace with the Mohawks and joined the English, but were soon reduced to 200 warriors, and the Connecticut Mohegans to about 150. Some of the latter were collected at Stockbridge, Mass.; and from 1740 to 1744 the Moravians had a flourishing mission among them at Shekomeco, in Dutchess county, N. Y. Some of these went to Pennsylvania under the care of the Moravians. In the Revolution they joined the Americans, and were found in the ranks at Bunker Hill, White Plains, and other fields. After the war some of the Mohegans emigrated to Oneida, under the Rev. Samson Occum, a native preacher, and others, and before 1830 they had emigrated to Green Bay, Wis., where they abandoned their tribal relations and became citizens. They have almost given up their own language for the English, and are nearly extinct. Those who remained in Connecticut took up their abode near Norwich, at a place known as Mohegan Plains, and also near the village of Kent, in western Connecticut. At the latter place they have intermingled with other races, until now, among less than a hundred, not one of pure blood remains. The last surviving Pequod of pure blood was Eunice Mauwee, who died near Kent in 1860, aged about 100 years. The last lineal descendant of Uncas, the "rebel," was buried at Norwich in 1827. The tribe in Connecticut is extinct.

Molino del Rey. See EL MOLINO DEL REY.

Molly Maguires, THE. There are several stories related in regard to the origin of the name of the "Molly Maguires," all of which seem to come from one parent tradition. One which has gained somewhat general currency is that an old woman named Maguire was murdered in Ireland, many years ago, at the hands of a land agent, who, in company with his followers, seized on her property for rent. The sons of the woman and their friends formed a society, to which the name of the deceased was given. Another story runs that the society was formed under the auspices of an old woman, Maguire by name, and that the first meetings were held at

her house. Still another is to the effect that there was a "sort of Amazon of that name, who not only planned deviltry, but also was foremost in assisting to execute it." It is, however, believed by many who have given the origin and history of the organization careful attention that the best-authenticated explanation of the name is that the members were stout, active young men, dressed up in women's clothes, with their faces blackened and otherwise disguised, with crape or fantastic masks, or with burnt cork about their eyes, mouths, and cheeks. In this condition they would pounce upon process-servers and others engaged in the prosecutions and evictions of tenants, duck them in bog-holes, beat, and otherwise misuse them. The custom of wearing women's clothes does not appear to have been observed in all localities, and it is noticed that there is no recorded instance of this disguise ever having been resorted to in the United States. To the discriminating reader it is scarcely necessary to suggest that, whatever may have been the causes for the organization of the Molly Maguires in Ireland, no such reasons warranted their existence in this country. Here were no oppressive land laws, here no landed proprietors who ground down their struggling tenants, here no alien monopolists of the soil to grow richer and richer while the peasantry grew poorer and poorer; so that whatever may be urged in extenuation of the offences of the Molly Maguires in Ireland, on account of their wrongs and temptations, their race and their history must not be confounded with the deeds of violence committed by the illegitimate offspring of the order which terrorized whole counties in Pennsylvania, and left a blood-red trail behind it in the coal regions of the Keystone State.

When the coal-fields began to be opened up in Pennsylvania there was a large demand for laborers, and many of the best of the working-classes answered the call; but with these were numbers of the floating, drifting, unstable. In early war times vague rumors were abroad that these restless elements in the neighborhood of Pottsville had crystallized, and that an order called the "Black Spots" was in existence there. In 1862 it was rumored that a powerful society called the "Buckshot" was exercising an unwholesome influence in Schuyler and Luzerne counties. Both these organizations have had laid at their doors crimes of various kinds, assaults, arson, and even murder. It was in the midst of such lawlessness that the Molly Maguires grew rapidly, and in such communities that their deeds of darkness and bloodshed were perpetrated. To give even a record of the murders and outrages they committed would take a large volume. Those which are known are numbered by the hundred, and the unfortunate victims in most cases were gentlemen well known and highly respected in the community in which they lived. However, in 1873, a young detective named James McParlan, attached to the Pinkerton detective agency of Chicago, was detailed to investigate the Molly Maguires, and learn their character and purposes. He did so, and the secrets of the order were revealed, the sanguinary work of its members shown to the public, many of its perpetrators brought to justice, and the strength and terrorism of its lawless leaders and tools broken.

Mompesson, ROGER, jurist; born in England; was appointed judge of the vice-admiralty for Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania in April, 1703; and settled in Pennsylvania in 1704. Though highly spoken of as a man and a lawyer, he was a mere tool in the hands of Lord Cornbury, the governor of New York and New Jersey. He died in March, 1715, some authorities say in New Jersey, others in New York.

Monckton, ROBERT, colonial governor; born in England; was son of the first Viscount Galway, and began his military life in Flanders in 1742. In 1754 he was governor of Annapolis (Port Royal), Nova Scotia; assisted in the reduction of the French power in that peninsula, and was lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia in 1756. He commanded a battalion at the siege of Louisburg in 1758, and the next year he was second in command under General Wolfe at the capture of Quebec, where he acted as brigadier-general, and was severely wounded. In 1761 he was made major-general, and the next year governor of New York. He commanded the expedition against Martinique in 1762;

was a member of Parliament in 1768; made lieutenant-general in 1770, and was offered the command of the British forces in America in 1775, but he declined to draw his sword against British subjects. He died in England, May 3, 1782.

MONETARY REFORM

Monetary Reform. A national monetary conference, called at the request of the Indianapolis Board of Trade, and composed of representatives of similar organizations in all parts of the United States, was held in Indianapolis, Ind., in January, 1897. Nearly 300 delegates were present. Among the points made in the addresses and papers were: That the greenbacks should be retired; that national banks should be permitted to issue notes up to the par value of bonds deposited to secure their payment; that the country needed a stable tariff, stable government, and stable currency; that prosperity could only be restored by the establishment of a sound monetary system; that the government should base all its issues on the gold standard and replace all notes by coin certificates protected by a 25 per cent. gold reserve; that the government should withdraw from the banking business; that postal savings-banks should be established; and that legislation was necessary for the maintenance of the gold standard, cancellation of United States legal-tender notes, and the creation of a safe and expansive currency on the basis of the plan followed in Baltimore, where there had been no bank failure in sixty years. Under a resolution, the conference appointed a monetary commission, and charged it with the duty of making a comprehensive investigation of the existing currency system with a view to urging a currency reform measure on Congress at its session of 1897–98. The commission consisted of ex-Senator Edmunds, of Vermont; ex-Secretary Charles S. Fairfield, of New York; C. Stuart Patterson, of Philadelphia; John W. Fries, of North Carolina; T. G. Bush, of Alabama; G. E. Leighton, of St. Louis; W. B. Dean, of St. Paul; Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, of Chicago; L. A. Garnett, of San Francisco; Stuyvesant Fish, of New York; H. H. Hanna, of Indianapolis, and Robert S. Taylor, of Indiana. At a session of the commission, Sept. 28, President Edmunds announced the following committees: On Metallic Currency—C. Stuart Patterson, of Pennsylvania; Louis A. Garrett, of California; and J. Laurence Laughlin, of Illinois. On Demand Obligations of the Government — Robert S. Taylor, of Indiana; Stuyvesant Fish, of New York; J. W. Fries, of North Carolina, and George Edmunds, of Vermont. On the Banking System—Charles S. Fairchild, of New York; T. G. Bush, of Alabama; W. B. Dean, of Minnesota, and George E. Leighton, of Missouri.

In January, 1898, a second conference was held in Indianapolis, during which the report of the commission was unanimously adopted. The report, after reciting the facts as to the currency, the demand obligations of the government, and the banking system, gave the following plan of currency reform:

I.—METALLIC CURRENCY AND DEMAND OBLIGATIONS.

1. The existing gold standard shall be maintained; and to this end the standard unit of value shall continue, as now, to consist of 25.8 grains of gold, nine-tenths fine, or 23.22 grains of pure gold, as now represented by the one-tenth part of the eagle. All obligations for the payment of money shall be performed in conformity to the standard aforesaid; but this provision shall not be deemed to affect the present legal-tender quality of the silver coinage of the United States or of their paper currency having the quality of legal tender. All obligations of the United States for the payment of money now existing, or hereafter entered into, shall, unless otherwise expressly provided, be deemed, and held, to be payable in gold coin of the United States as defined in the standard aforesaid.

2. There shall continue to be free coinage of gold into coins of the denominations, weights, fineness, and legal-tender quality prescribed by existing laws.

3. No silver dollars shall be hereafter coined.

4. Silver coins of denominations less than $1 shall be coined upon government account, of the denominations, weight, fineness, and legal-tender quality prescribed by existing laws.

5. Minor coins shall continue to be coined upon government account, of the denominations, weight, fineness, and legal-tender quality prescribed by existing laws.

6. Subsidiary and minor coins shall be issued and exchanged as prescribed by existing laws, except as hereinafter otherwise provided.

7. There shall be created a separate division in the Treasury Department, to be known as the Division of Issue and Redemption, under the charge of an assistant treasurer of the United States, who shall be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

8. To this division shall be committed all functions of the Treasury Department pertaining to the issue and redemption of notes or certificates, and to the exchange of coins, and this division shall have the custody of the guarantee and redemption funds of the national banks, and shall conduct all the operations of redeeming national bank notes, as prescribed by law, and to this division shall be transferred all gold coin held against outstanding gold certificates, all United States notes held against outstanding currency certificates, all silver dollars held against outstanding silver certificates, and all silver dollars and silver bullion held against outstanding treasury notes of 1890, and all subsidiary and minor coins needed for the issue and exchange of such coins, and the funds deposited with the treasury for the liquidation of national bank notes. All accounts relating to the business of this division shall be kept entirely apart and distinct from those of the fiscal departments of the treasury, and the accounts relating to the national banks shall be kept separate and apart from all other accounts.

9. A reserve shall be established in this division by the transfer to it by the treasurer of the United States from the general funds of the treasury of an amount of gold in coin and bullion equal to 25 per cent. of the aggregate amount of both the United States notes and treasury notes issued under the act of July 14, 1890, outstanding, and a further sum in gold equal to 5 per cent. of the aggregate amount of the coinage of silver dollars. This reserve shall be held as a common fund, and used solely for the redemption of such notes and in exchange for such notes, and for silver and subsidiary and minor coins.

10. It shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain the gold reserve in the division of issue and redemption at such sum as shall secure the certain and immediate resumption of all notes and silver dollars presented, and the preservation of public confidence; and for this purpose he shall from time to time as needed transfer from the general fund of the treasury to the division of issue and redemption any surplus revenue not otherwise appropriated, and in addition thereto he shall be authorized to issue and sell, whenever it is, in his judgment, necessary for that purpose, bonds of the United States bearing interest not exceeding 3 per cent., running twenty years, but redeemable in gold coin, at the option of the United States, after one year; and the proceeds of all such sales shall be paid into the division of issue and redemption for the purposes aforesaid.

11. To provide for any temporary deficiency which may at any time exist in the fiscal department of the treasury of the United States, the Secretary of the Treasury shall be authorized, at his discretion, to issue certificates of indebtedness of the United States, payable in from one to five years after their date, to the bearer, of the denominations of $50, or multiples thereof, with interest at a rate not to exceed 3 per cent. per annum, and to sell and dispose of the same for lawful money at the Treasury Department, and at the sub-treasuries and designated depositories of the United States, and at such post-offices as he may select. And such certificates shall have the like privileges and exemptions provided in the act to authorize the refunding of the national debt, approved July 14, 1870.

12. Whenever money is to be borrowed on the credit of the United States the

Secretary of the Treasury shall be authorized, instead of issuing the usual forms of engraved bonds, upon receiving lawful money of the United States in sums of not less than fifty dollars ($50) in any single payment, to cause a record of all such payments to be made in books to be kept for that purpose in Washington, and thereafter, from time to time, to pay to those so registered on such books interest not exceeding 3 per cent. per annum in gold coin on the amount with which they shall severally stand credited on such books, in the same manner and at the same dates as if they were the holders and owners of registered bonds of the United States; and he shall also pay to those so registered the principal sum originally deposited, in gold coin, at the date of maturity of such inscribed loans. Suitable arrangements shall be made at each and every money-order post-office in the United States for receiving such payments into the treasury on like terms, as well as for the transfer, on proper identification, of any inscription on the books in Washington, or of any part thereof not less than fifty dollars ($50). No interest shall accrue or be paid on inscriptions which shall have been reduced below fifty dollars ($50). No charge of any kind shall be made by any department or officer of the government for any service in connection with the receipt or transmission of the lawful money, nor in the transfer of inscriptions on the books at Washington.

13. The division of issue and redemption shall on demand at Washington, and at such sub-treasuries of the United States as the Secretary of the Treasury may from time to time designate:

(a) Pay out gold coin for gold certificates.

(b) Pay out gold coin in redemption of United States notes or treasury notes of 1890.

(c) Pay out silver dollars for silver certificates of any denomination.

(d) Issue silver certificates of denominations of $1, $2, and $5 in exchange for silver dollars, and silver certificates in denominations above $5.

(e) Pay out gold coin in exchange for silver dollars.

(f) Pay out silver dollars in exchange for gold coin, United States notes, or treasury notes.

(g) Pay out United States notes or treasury notes, not subject to immediate cancellation, in exchange for gold coin.

(h) Pay out and redeem subsidiary and minor coins as provided by existing laws.

(i) Pay out United States notes in exchange for currency certificates.

14. United States notes or treasury notes once redeemed shall not be paid out again except for gold, unless there shall be an accumulation of such notes in the division of issue and redemption which cannot then be cancelled under the provisions of the act, in which case the Secretary of the Treasury shall have authority, if, in his judgment, that course is necessary for the public welfare, to invest the same or any portion thereof in bonds of the United States for the benefit of the redemption fund, such bonds to be held in the division of issue and redemption, subject to sale at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury for the benefit of the division of issue and redemption, and not for any other purpose.

15. The Secretary of the Treasury shall be authorized to sell from time to time, in his discretion, any silver bullion in the division of issue and redemption; and the proceeds in gold of such sales shall be placed to the account of the gold reserve in the division of issue and redemption.

16. The gold certificates and the currency certificates shall, whenever presented and paid or received in the treasury, be retired and not reissued.

17. No United States note or treasury note of 1890 of a denomination less than $10 shall hereafter be issued; and silver certificates shall hereafter be issued or paid out only in denominations of $1, $2, and $5 against silver dollars held by or deposited in the treasury.

18. The assistant treasurer in charge of the division of issue and redemption shall, on demand, pay in gold coin all United States notes and treasury notes presented for payment, and as paid cancel the same up to the amount of $50,000,000. After that amount shall have been paid and cancelled, he shall then, from time to time, cancel such further amounts of notes so paid as shall equal, but not exceed, the increase of national bank notes

issued subsequent to the taking effect of the proposed act.

19. If at the end of five years next after the taking effect of the proposed act any United States notes or treasury notes shall be outstanding, a sum not exceeding one-fifth of such outstanding amount shall be retired, and cancelled each year thereafter; and at the end of ten years after the passage of the proposed act the United States notes and treasury notes then outstanding shall cease to be legal tender for all debts, public and private, except for dues to the United States.

20. The Secretary of the Treasury may, in his discretion, transfer from surplus revenue in the general treasury to the division of issue and redemption any United States notes or treasury notes which on such transfer could then lawfully be cancelled under the provisions of the proposed act if they had been redeemed on presentation; and when so transferred the same shall be cancelled. The Secretary of the Treasury, in his discretion, whenever there may be United States notes or treasury notes in the general treasury, which are not available as surplus revenue, and which, upon transfer to the division of issue and redemption, could then lawfully be cancelled under the provisions of the act, may exchange such notes with the division of issue and redemption for gold coin, and such notes shall thereupon be cancelled.

21. All vested rights of property or contract, and all penalties incurred before the taking effect of the proposed act or any part of it, shall not be affected by the passage thereof, and all provisions of law inconsistent with any of the provisions of the proposed act should be repealed.

II.—BANKING SYSTEM.

22. The total issues of any national bank shall not exceed the amount of its paid-up and unimpaired capital, exclusive of so much thereof as is invested in real estate. All such notes shall be of uniform design and quality, and shall be made a first lien upon all the assets of the issuing bank, including the personal liability of the stockholders. No such notes shall be of less denomination than $10.

23. Up to an amount equal to 25 per cent. of the capital stock of the bank (the whole of its capital being unimpaired), the notes issued by it shall not exceed the value of United States bonds, to be fixed as hereinafter provided, deposited with the treasurer of the United States. The additional notes authorized may be issued without further deposit of bonds.

Beginning five years after the passage of the proposed act, the amount of bonds required to be deposited before issuing notes in excess thereof shall be reduced each year by one-fifth of the 25 per cent. of capital herein provided for, and thereafter any bank may at any time withdraw any bonds deposited in excess of the requirements hereof.

24. Every national bank shall pay a tax at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum payable monthly upon the amount of its notes outstanding in excess of 60 per cent., and not in excess of 80 per cent. of its capital, and a tax at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum payable monthly upon the amount of its notes outstanding in excess of 80 per cent. of its capital.

25. Any bank may deposit any lawful money with the treasurer of the United States for the retirement of any of its notes; and every such deposit shall be treated as a reduction of its outstanding notes to that extent; and the tax above provided for shall cease as of the 1st of the following month on an equal amount of its notes.

26. The Secretary of the Treasury shall annually fix the value of each series of bonds of the United States bearing a rate of interest exceeding 3 per cent. as equalized upon the rate of interest of 3 per cent. per annum, and such valuation as fixed by the Secretary on this basis shall be the valuation at which the bonds will be receivable upon deposit. Bonds payable at the option of the government shall be receivable at 95 per cent. of their then market value as determined by the Secretary of the Treasury. If any bonds shall be issued hereafter payable at date named and bearing interest at 3 per cent. or less, they shall be receivable at par.

27. The comptroller of the currency shall from time to time, as called for, issue to any bank the capital of which is full paid and unimpaired any of the notes herein elsewhere provided for, on the payment to the treasurer of the United States in

gold coin, of 5 per cent. of the amount of notes thus called for, which payments shall go into the common guarantee fund, for the prompt payment of the notes of any defaulted national bank. Upon the failure of any bank to redeem its notes, they shall be paid from the said guarantee fund, and forthwith proceedings shall be taken to collect from the assets of the bank and from the stockholders thereof, if necessary, a sum sufficient to repay to said guarantee fund the amount thereof that shall have been used to redeem said notes; and also such further sums as shall be adequate to the redemption of all the unpaid notes of said banks outstanding.

28. Persons who, having been stockholders of the bank, have transferred their shares, or any of them, to others, or registered the transfer thereof within sixty days before the commencement of the suspension of payment by the bank, shall be liable to all calls on the shares held or subscribed for by them, as if they held such shares at the time of suspension of payment, saving their recourse against those by whom such shares were then actually held. So long as any obligation of the bank shall remain unsatisfied, the liability of each stockholder shall extend to, but not exceed in the whole, an amount equal to the par of his stock.

29. If the said guarantee fund of 5 per cent. of all the notes outstanding shall become impaired by reason of payment made to redeem the said notes as herein provided, the comptroller of the currency shall make an assessment upon all the banks in proportion to their notes then outstanding sufficient to make said funds equal to 5 per cent. of said outstanding notes.

Any bank may deposit any lawful money with the treasurer of the United States for the retirement of any of its notes, or return its own notes for cancellation, whereupon the comptroller shall direct the repayment to such bank of whatever sum may be the unimpaired portion of said bank's contribution to the guarantee fund on account of said notes.

Any portion of the guarantee fund may be invested in United States bonds in the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury.

The taxes on circulation, provided for in paragraph 24, as well as the interest accruing from investment of any part of the guarantee fund, shall be held in the division of issue and redemption in gold coin or in United States bonds, in the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, and shall be a fund supplementary and in addition to the guarantee fund to be used in case said guarantee fund shall ever become insufficient to redeem any bank notes issued hereunder, and it shall not be taken into account in estimating the amount of assessments necessary to replenish said guarantee fund or in payments to banks of their contributions to the guarantee fund.

30. The present system of national bank-note redemption should be continued, with a constantly maintained redemption fund of 5 per cent. in gold coin, and with power conferred on the comptroller of the currency, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, to establish additional redemption agencies at any or all of the sub-treasuries of the United States, as he may determine.

31. So much of the provisions of existing law as require each national bank to receive at par in payment of debts to it the notes of other national banks, and making such notes receivable at par in payment of all dues to the United States except duties on imports, shall be extended to cover notes issued under the proposed plan.

32. National banks shall hold reserves in lawful money against their deposits of not less than 25 per cent. and 15 per cent. for the respective classes, as now provided by law, at least one-fourth of which reserve shall be in coin, and held in the vaults of the bank. Neither the 5 per cent. redemption fund nor the 5 per cent. guarantee fund shall be counted as part of the reserve required. No bank shall count or report any of its own notes as a part of its cash or cash assets on hand.

33. Permit the organization of national banks with a capital stock of $25,000 in places of 4,000 population or less.

34. Provision should be made whereby branch banks may be established, with the consent of the comptroller of the currency and approval of the Secretary of the Treasury.

35. For the purpose of meeting the expenses of the treasury in connection with the national-bank system, a tax of one-eighth of 1 per cent. per annum upon its franchise, as measured by the amount of its capital, surplus, and undivided profits, shall be imposed upon each bank.

36. To so amend existing laws as to provide:

(a) For more frequent and thorough examinations of banks.

(b) For fixed salaries for bank examiners.

(c) To provide for rotation of examiners.

(d) For public reports, regular or special, at the call of the comptroller of the currency.

(e) To make it penal for any bank to loan money, or grant any gratuity, to an examiner of that bank, and penal for such examiner to receive it.

37. Any national banking association heretofore organized may at any time within one year from the passage of the proposed act, and with the approval of the comptroller of the currency, be granted, as herein provided, all the rights, and be subject to all the liabilities, of natural banking associations organized hereunder: Provided, that such action on the part of such associations shall be authorized by the consent in writing of shareholders owning not less than two-thirds of the capital stock of the association.

38. Any national banking association now organized which shall not, within one year after the passage of the proposed act, become a national banking association under the provisions hereinbefore stated, and which shall not place in the hands of the treasurer of the United States the sums hereinbefore provided for the redemption and guarantee of the circulating notes, or which shall fail to comply with any other provision of the proposed act, shall be dissolved, but such dissolution shall not take away or impair any remedy against such corporation, its stockholders or officers, for any liability or penalty which shall have been previously incurred.

39. Any bank or banking association incorporated by special law of any State, or organized under the general laws of any State, and having a paid-up and unimpaired capital sufficient to entitle it to become a national banking association under the provisions of the proposed act, may, by the consent in writing of the shareholders owning not less than two-thirds of the capital stock of such bank or banking association, and with the approval of the comptroller of the currency, become a national bank under this system, under its former name or by any name approved by the comptroller. The directors thereof may continue to be the directors of the association so organized until others are elected or appointed in accordance with the provisions of the law. When the comptroller of the currency has given to such bank or banking association a certificate that the provisions of this act have been complied with, such bank or banking association, and all its stockholders, officers, and employés shall have the same powers and privileges, and shall be subject to the same duties, liabilities, and regulations, in all respects, as shall have been prescribed for associations originally organized as national banking associations under the proposed act.

At the adjourned session of the conference in Indianapolis, in 1898, after the report of the commission was adopted, a subcommittee of the commission, consisting of ex-Senator Edmunds, ex-Secretary Fairchild, and C. Stuart Patterson, prepared a bill for introduction in Congress, based on the conclusions of the commission. This bill was introduced into the House of Representatives by Representative Overstreet, of Indiana, on Dec. 4, 1899. On Dec. 18, following, the measure was passed by the House by a vote of 190 yeas to 150 nays. On Dec. 9 the bill was laid before the Senate, referred to the committee on finance, and, after being considerably amended, was passed on Feb. 15, 1900, by a vote of 49 yeas to 46 nays. The House refused to concur in the Senate amendments, whereupon a committee of conference was appointed, which agreed upon a substitute, and its report was adopted, March 13, 1900, and received the President's approval on the following day.

The provisions of the measure as finally adopted are as follows:

That the dollar consisting of 25.8 grains of gold nine-tenths fine, as established by Section 3,511 of the Revised Statutes of

the United States, shall be the standard unit of value, and all forms of money issued or coined by the United States shall be maintained at a parity of value with this standard, and it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to maintain such parity.

SEC. 2. That United States notes, and treasury notes issued under the act of July 14, 1890, when presented to the treasury for redemption, shall be fixed in the first section of this act, and in order to secure the prompt and certain redemption of such notes as herein provided it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to set apart in the treasury a reserve fund of $150,000,000 in gold coin and bullion, which fund shall be used for such redemption purposes only, and whenever and as often as any of said notes shall be redeemed from said fund it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to use said notes so redeemed to restore and maintain such reserve fund in the manner following, to wit: First, by exchanging the notes so redeemed for any gold coin in the general fund of the treasury; second, by accepting deposits of gold coin at the treasury or at any sub-treasury in exchange for the United States notes so redeemed; third, by procuring gold coin by the use of said notes, in accordance with the provisions of Section 3,700 of the Revised Statutes of the United States. If the Secretary of the Treasury is unable to restore and maintain the gold coin in the reserve fund by the foregoing methods, and the amount of such gold coin and bullion in said fund shall at any time fall below $100,000,000, then it shall be his duty to restore the same to the maximum sum of $150,000,000 by borrowing money on the credit of the United States, and for the debt thus incurred to issue and sell coupon or registered bonds of the United States, in such form as he may prescribe, in denominations of $50 or any multiple thereof, bearing interest at the rate of not exceeding 3 per cent. per annum, payable quarterly, such bonds to be payable at the pleasure of the United States after one year from the date of their issue, and to be payable, principal and interest, in gold coin of the present standard value, and to be exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority; and the gold coin received from the sale of said bonds shall first be covered into the general fund of the treasury and then exchanged, in the manner hereinbefore provided, for an equal amount of the notes redeemed and held for exchange, and the Secretary of the Treasury may, in his discretion, use said notes in exchange for gold, or to purchase or redeem any bonds of the United States, or for any other lawful purpose the public interests may require, except that they shall not be used to meet deficiencies in the current revenues. That United States notes when redeemed in accordance with the provisions of this section shall be reissued, but shall be held in the reserve fund until exchanged for gold, as herein provided; and the gold coin and bullion in the reserve fund, together with the redeemed notes held for use as provided in this section, shall at no time exceed the maximum sum of $150,000,000.

SEC. 3. That nothing contained in this act shall be construed to affect the legal-tender quality as now provided by law of the silver dollar, or of any other money coined or issued by the United States.

SEC. 4. That there be established in the Treasury Department, as a part of the office of the treasurer of the United States, divisions to be designated and known as the division of issue and the division of redemption, to which shall be assigned, respectively, under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may approve, all records and accounts relating to the issue and redemption of United States notes, gold certificates, silver certificates, and currency certificates. There shall be transferred from the accounts of the general fund of the treasury of the United States, and taken up on the books of said divisions, respectively, accounts relating to the reserve fund for the redemption of United States notes and treasury notes, the gold coin held against outstanding gold certificates, the United States notes held against outstanding currency certificates, and the silver dollars held against outstanding silver certificates, and each of the funds represented by these accounts shall be used for the redemption of the notes and certificates for

which they are respectively pledged, and shall be used for no other purpose, the same being held as trust funds.

SEC. 5. That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, as fast as standard silver dollars are coined under the provisions of the acts of July 14, 1890, and June 13, 1898, from bullion purchased under the act of July 14, 1890, to retire and cancel an equal amount of treasury notes whenever received into the treasury, either by exchange in accordance with the provisions of this act or in the ordinary course of business, and upon the cancellation of treasury notes silver certificates shall be issued against the silver dollars so coined.

SEC. 6. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized and directed to receive deposits of gold coin with the treasurer or any assistant treasurer of the United States in sums of not less than $20, and to issue gold certificates therefor in denominations of not less than $20, and the coin so deposited shall be retained in the treasury and held for the payment of such certificates on demand, and used for no other purpose. Such certificates shall be receivable for customs, taxes, and all public dues, and when so received may be reissued, and when held by any national banking association may be counted as part of its lawful reserve: Provided, that whenever and so long as the gold coin held in the reserve fund in the treasury for the redemption of United States notes and treasury notes shall fall and remain below $100,000,000, the authority to issue certificates, as herein provided, shall be suspended: And provided further, that whenever and so long as the aggregate amount of United States notes and silver certificates in the general fund of the treasury shall exceed $60,000,000 the Secretary of the Treasury may, in his discretion, suspend the issue of the certificates herein provided for: And provided further, that of the amount of such outstanding certificates one-fourth at least shall be in denominations of $50 or less: And provided further, that the Secretary of the Treasury may, in his discretion, issue such certificates in denominations of $10,000, payable to order. And Section 5,193 of the Revised Statutes of the United States is hereby repealed.

SEC. 7. That hereafter silver certificates shall be issued only of denominations of $10 and under, except that not exceeding in the aggregate 10 per cent. of the total volume of said certificates, in the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, may be issued in denominations of $20, $50, and $100; and silver certificates of higher denominations than $10, except as herein provided, shall, whenever received at the treasury or redeemed, be retired and cancelled, and certificates of denominations of $10 or less shall be substituted therefor, and after such substitution, in whole or in part, a like volume of United States notes of less denomination than $10 shall from time to time be retired and cancelled, and notes of denominations of $10 and upward shall be reissued in substitution therefor, with like qualities and restrictions as those retired and cancelled.

SEC. 8. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to use, at his discretion, any silver bullion in the treasury of the United States purchased under the act of July 14, 1890, for coinage into such denominations of subsidiary silver coin as may be necessary to meet the public requirements for such coin: Provided, that the amount of subsidiary silver coin outstanding shall not at any time exceed in the aggregate $100,000,000. Whenever any silver bullion purchased under the act of July 14, 1890, shall be used in the coinage of subsidiary silver coin, an amount of treasury notes issued under said act equal to the cost of the bullion contained in such coin shall be cancelled and not reissued.

SEC. 9. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized and directed to cause all worn and uncurrent subsidiary silver coin of the United States now in the treasury, and hereafter received, to be recoined, and to reimburse the treasurer of the United States for the difference between the nominal or face value of such coin and the amount the same will produce in new coin from any moneys in the treasury not otherwise appropriated.

SEC. 10. That Section 5,138 of the Revised Statutes is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"SEC. 5,138. No association shall be organized with a less capital than $100,000,

except that banks with a capital of not less than $50,000 may, with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, be organized in any place the population of which does not exceed 6,000 inhabitants, and except that banks with a capital of not less than $25,000 may, with the sanction of the Secretary of the Treasury, be organized in any place the population of which does not exceed 3,000 inhabitants. No association shall be organized in a city the population of which exceeds 50,00 persons with a capital of less than $200,000."

SEC. 11. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to receive at the treasury any of the outstanding bonds of the United States bearing interest at 5 per cent. per annum, payable Feb. 1, 1904, and any bonds of the United States bearing interest at 3 per cent. per annum, payable Aug. 1, 1908, and to issue in exchange therefor an equal amount of coupon or registered bonds of the United States in such form as he may prescribe, in denominations of $50, or any multiple thereof, bearing interest at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum, payable quarterly, such bonds to be payable at the pleasure of the United States after thirty years from the date of their issue, and said bonds to be payable, principal and interest, in gold coin of the present standard value, and to be exempt from the payment of all taxes or duties of the United States, as well as from taxation in any form by or under State, municipal, or local authority: Provided, that such outstanding bonds may be received in exchange at a valuation not greater than their present worth to yield an income of 2¼ per cent. per annum; and in consideration of the reduction of interest effected, the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized to pay to the holders of the outstanding bonds surrendered for exchange, out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, a sum not greater than the difference between their present worth, computed as aforesaid, and their par value, and the payments to be made hereunder shall be held to be payments on account of the sinking-fund created by Section 3,694 of the Revised Statutes: And provided further, that the 2-per-cent. bonds, to be issued under the provisions of this act shall be issued at not less than par, and they shall be numbered consecutively in the order of their issue, and when payment is made the last number issued shall be first paid, and this order shall be followed until all the bonds are paid, and whenever any of the outstanding bonds are called for payment interest thereon shall cease three months after such call; and there is hereby appropriated out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, to effect the exchanges of bonds provided for in this act, a sum not exceeding one-fifteenth of 1 per cent. of the face value of said bonds, to pay the expense of preparing and issuing the same and other expenses incident thereto.

SEC. 12. That upon the deposit with the treasurer of the United States, by any national banking association, of any bonds of the United States in the manner provided by existing law, such association shall be entitled to receive from the comptroller of the currency circulating notes in blank, registered and countersigned as provided by law, equal in amount to the par value of the bonds so deposited; and any national banking association now having bonds on deposit for the security of circulating notes, and upon which an amount of circulating notes has been issued less than the par value of the bonds, shall be entitled, upon due application to the comptroller of the currency, to receive additional circulating notes in blank to an amount which will increase the circulating notes held by such association to the par value of the bonds deposited, such additional notes to be held and treated in the same way as circulating notes of national banking associations heretofore issued, and subject to all the provisions of law affecting such notes: Provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to modify or repeal the provisions of Section 5,167 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, authorizing the comptroller of the currency to require additional deposits of bonds or of lawful money in case the market value of the bonds held to secure the circulating notes shall fall below the par value of the circulating notes outstanding for which such bonds may be deposited as security: And provided further, that the circulating notes furnished to the national banking associations under the provisions of this

act shall be of the denominations prescribed by law, except that no national banking association shall, after the passage of this act, be entitled to receive from the comptroller of the currency, or to issue or reissue or place in circulation, more than one-third in amount of its circulating notes of the denomination of $5: And provided further, that the total amount of such notes issued to any such association may equal at any time, but shall not exceed, the amount at such time of its capital stock actually paid in: And provided further, that under regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury any national banking association may substitute the 2 per cent. bonds issued under the provisions of this act for any of the bonds deposited with the treasurer to secure circulation or to secure deposits of public money; and so much of an act entitled "An act to enable national banking associations to extend their corporate existence, and for other purposes, approved July 12, 1882," as prohibits any national bank which makes any deposit of lawful money in order to withdraw its circulating notes from receiving any increase of its circulation for the period of six months from the time it made such deposit of lawful money for the purpose aforesaid, is hereby repealed, and all other acts or parts of acts inconsistent with the provisions of this section are hereby repealed.

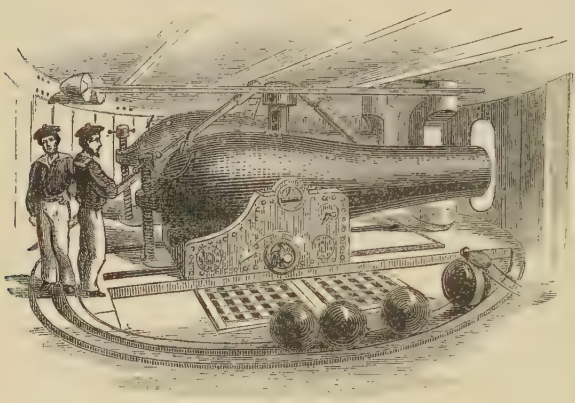
SEC. 13. That every national banking association having on deposit, as provided by law, bonds of the United States bearing interest at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum, issued under the provisions of this act, to secure its circulating notes, shall pay to the treasurer of the United States, in the months of January and July, a tax of one-fourth of 1 per cent. each half-year upon the average amount of such of its notes in circulation as are based upon the deposit of said 2 per cent. bonds; and such taxes shall be in lieu of existing taxes on its notes in circulation imposed by Section 5,214 of the Revised Statutes.

SEC. 14. That the provisions of this act are not intended to preclude the accomplishment of international bimetallism whenever conditions shall make it expedient and practicable to secure the same by concurrent action of the leading commercial nations of the world and at a ratio which shall insure permanence of relative value between gold and silver.

Monitor and Merrimac. At the moment when the Confederates evacuated Manassas a strange naval battle occurred in Hampton Roads. The Confederates had raised the sunken *Merrimac* in the Gosport navy-yard and converted it into an iron-clad ram, which they called the *Virginia*, commanded by Captain Buchanan, late of the United States navy. She had gone down to Hampton Roads and destroyed (March 8, 1862) the wooden sailing frigates *Congress* and *Cumberland*, at the mouth of the James River, and it was expected she would annihilate other ships there the next morning. Anxiously the army and navy officers of that vicinity passed the night of the 8th, for there appeared no competent human agency near to avert the threatened disaster. Meanwhile another vessel of novel form and aspect had been constructed at Greenpoint, L. I., N. Y., under the direction of CAPT. JOHN ERICSSON (*q. v.*), who used Theodore R. Timby's invention of a revolving turret. It presented to the eye, when afloat, a simple platform,

MAP OF HAMPTON ROADS.

sharp at both ends, and bearing in its centre a round Martello tower 20 feet in diameter and 10 feet in height, made, as



INTERIOR OF THE MONITOR'S TURRET.

was the rest of the vessel, of heavy iron. It presented a bomb-proof fort, in which were mounted two 11-inch Dahlgren guns. The hull of this vessel was only 8½ feet in depth, with a flat bottom, and was 124 feet in length, and 34 feet the greatest width at top. On this hull rested another, 5 feet in height, that extended over the lower one 3 feet 7 inches all around, excepting at the ends, where it projected 25 feet, by which protection was afforded the anchor, propeller, and rudder. The whole was built of 3-inch iron, and was very buoyant. Its exposed parts were guarded by a wall of white oak, 30 inches in thickness, on which was laid iron armor 6 inches in thickness. A shot to strike the lower hull would have to pass through 25 feet of water, and then strike an inclined plane of iron at an angle of about 10°. The deck was well armed also.

Such was the strange craft that entered Hampton Roads from the sea, under the command of LIEUT. JOHN L. WORDEN (*q. v.*), unheralded and unknown, at a little past midnight, March 9, on its trial trip. It had been named *Monitor*. It had been towed to the Roads by steamers, outriding a tremendous gale. Worden reported to the flag-officer of the fleet in the Roads, and was ordered to aid the *Minnesota* in the expected encounter with the *Merrimac* in the morning. It was a bright Sabbath morning. Before sunrise the dreaded *Merrimac* and her company came down from Norfolk. The stern guns of the *Minnesota* opened upon the formidable ironclad, when the little *Monitor*, which the Confederates called in derision a "cheese-box," ran out and placed herself by the side of the huge monster. She was like a pigmy by the side of a giant. Suddenly her mysterious citadel began to revolve, and from it her guns hurled ponderous

BATTLE BETWEEN THE MONITOR AND MERRIMAC, IN HAMPTON ROADS.

shot in quick succession. The *Merrimac* answered by heavy broadsides, and so they struggled for some time without injuring each other. Then the *Monitor* withdrew a little to seek a vulnerable part of her antagonist, while the *Merrimac* pounded her awfully, sometimes sending upon her masses of iron weighing 200 pounds at a velocity of 200 feet per second. These struck her deck and tower without harming them, and conical bolts that struck the latter glanced off as pebbles would fly from solid granite. The *Merrimac* drew off and attacked the *Minnesota*. Seeing the latter in great peril, the *Monitor* ran between

THE NEW IRONSIDES AND MONITOR.

them. A most severe duel ensued, and as a result the *Merrimac* was so much disabled that she fled up to Norfolk, and did not again invite her little antagonist to combat. Worden was severely injured by concussion in the tower of the *Monitor*, and for a few days his life was in peril. This class of vessels was multiplied in the National navy, and did good service. A comparison of the appearance of the two vessels may be made in looking at the engraving of the *New Ironsides* and *Monitor*. The *New Ironsides* was a powerful vessel built in Philadelphia. It had a wooden hull covered with iron plates four inches in thickness. Her aggregate weight of guns was 284,000 lbs., two of them 200-pounder Parrott guns. She had two horizontal steam-engines, and was furnished with sails. At her bow was a formidable wrought-iron ram or beak. She was accidentally set on fire and destroyed at her moorings at League Island, below Philadelphia, Dec. 15, 1866.

Monk's Corner, the scene of a notable surprise of American cavalry. While the British were besieging Charleston in 1780 General Lincoln endeavored to keep an open communication with the country, across the Cooper River, so as to receive reinforcements, and, if necessary, to make a retreat. To close that communication Sir Henry Clinton detached Lieutenant-Colonel Webster, with 1,400 men. The advanced guard, composed of Tarleton's legion and Ferguson's corps, surprised the American cavalry (about 300 men), with militia attached to them, under the command of Gen. Isaac Huger, who were stationed at Biggin's Bridge, near Monk's Corner. The Americans were attacked just at dawn (April 14) and were scattered. Twenty-five of the Americans were killed; the remainder fled to the swamps. Tarleton secured nearly 300 horses, and, after closing Lincoln's communications with the country, he returned to the British camp in triumph.

Monmouth, Battle of. Just before the dawn of June 18, 1778, the British began their evacuation of Philadelphia. They crossed the Delaware to Gloucester Point, and that evening encamped around Haddonfield, a few miles southeast from

Camden, N. J. The news of this evacuation reached Washington, at Valley Forge, before morning. He immediately sent General Maxwell, with his brigade, to cooperate with the New Jersey militia under General Dickinson in retarding the march of the British, who, when they crossed the river, were 17,000 strong in effective men. They marched in two divisions, one under Cornwallis and the other led by Knyphausen. General Arnold, whose wounds kept him from the field, entered Philadelphia with a detachment before the rear-guard of the British had left it. The remainder of the army, under the immediate command of Washington, crossed the Delaware above Trenton and pursued. GEN. CHARLES LEE (*q. v.*), who had been exchanged, was now with the army, and persistently opposed all interference with Clinton's march across New Jersey, and found fault with everything.

Clinton had intended to march to New Brunswick and embark his army on Raritan Bay for New York; but, finding Washington in his path, he turned, at Allentown, towards Monmouth, to make his way to Sandy Hook, and thence to New York by water. Washington followed him in a parallel line, prepared to strike him whenever an opportunity should offer, while Clinton wished to avoid a battle, for he was encumbered with baggage-wagons and a host of camp-followers, making his line 12 miles in length. He encamped near the court-house in Freehold, Monmouth co., N. J., on June 27, and there Washington resolved to strike him if he should move the next morning, for it was important to prevent his reaching the advantageous position of Middletown Heights. General Lee was now in command of the advanced corps. Washington ordered him to form a plan of attack, but he omitted to do so, or to give any orders to Wayne, Lafayette, or Maxwell, who called upon him. And when, the next morning (June 28)—a hot Sabbath—Washington was told Clinton was about to move, and ordered Lee to fall upon the British rear, unless there should be grave reasons for not doing so, that officer so tardily obeyed that he allowed his antagonist ample time to prepare for battle.

OLD MONMOUTH COURT-HOUSE.

When Lee did move, he seemed to have no plan, and by his orders and counter-orders so perplexed his generals that they sent a request to Washington to appear on the field with the main army immediately. And while Wayne was attacking with vigor, with a sure prospect of victory, Lee ordered him to make only a feint. At that moment Clinton changed front, and sent a large force, horse and foot, to attack Wayne. Lafayette, believing there was now a good opportunity to gain the rear of the British, rode quickly up to Lee and asked permission to attempt the movement. He at first refused, but, seeing the earnestness of the marquis, he yielded a little, and ordered him to wheel his column by the right and attack Clinton's left. At the same time he weakened Wayne's detachment by taking three regiments from it to support the right. Then, being apparently disconcerted by a movement of the British, he ordered his right to fall back; and Generals Scott and Maxwell, who were then about to attack, were ordered to retreat. At the same time Lafayette received a similar order, a general retreat began, and the British pursued. In this flight and pursuit Lee showed no disposition to check either party, and the retreat became a disorderly flight. Washington was then pressing forward to the support of Lee, when he was met by the astounding intelligence

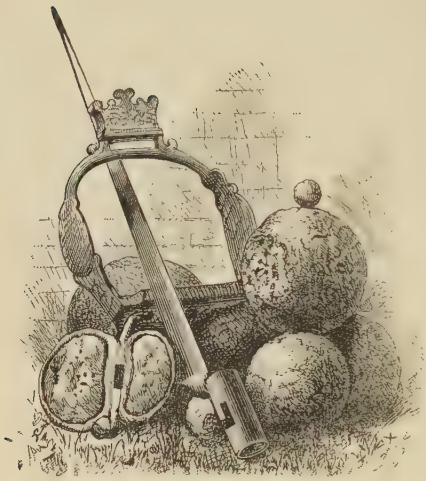
that the advance division was in full retreat. Lee had sent him no word of this disastrous movement.

The fugitives, falling back upon the main army, might endanger the whole. Washington's indignation was fearfully aroused, and when he met Lee, at the head of the second retreating column, he rode up to him, and, in a tone of withering reproof, he exclaimed, "Sir, I desire to know what is the reason and whence comes this disorder and confusion?" Lee replied sharply, "You know the attack was contrary to my advice and opinion." The chief replied in a tone that indicated the depth of his indignation, "You should not have undertaken the command unless you intended to carry it out." There was no time for altercation, and, wheeling his horse, he hastened to Ramsay and Stewart, in the rear, and soon rallied a greater portion of their regiments, and ordered Oswald to take post on an eminence near, with two guns. These pieces, skilfully handled, soon checked the enemy. Washington's presence inspired the troops with courage, and ten minutes after he appeared the retreat was ended. The troops, lately a fugitive mob, were soon in orderly battle array on an eminence on which Gen. Lord Stirling placed some batteries. The line, then, was commanded on the right by General Greene, and on the left by Stirling.

BATTLE-GROUND AT MONMOUTH.

The two armies now confronted each other. The British, about 7,000 strong, were upon a narrow road, bounded by morasses. Their cavalry attempted to turn the American left flank, but were repulsed and disappointed. The regiments of foot came up, when a severe battle occurred with musketry and cannon. The American artillery, under the general direction of Knox, did great execution. For a while the result seemed doubtful, when General Wayne came up with a body of troops and gave victory to the Americans. Colonel Monckton, perceiving that the fate of the conflict depended upon driving Wayne away or capturing him, led his troops to a bayonet charge. So terrible was Wayne's storm of bullets upon them that almost every British officer was slain. Their brave leader was among the killed, as he was pressing forward, waving his sword and shouting to his men. His veterans then retreated, and fell back to the heights occupied by Lee in the morning. The battle ended at twilight, when the wearied armies rested on their weapons, prepared for another conflict at dawn.

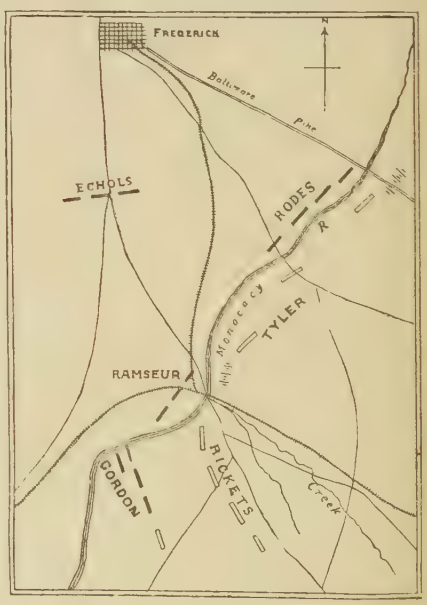
Through the deep sands of the roads, Clinton withdrew his army so silently towards midnight that he was far on his way towards Sandy Hook when the American sentinels discovered his flight in the morning (June 29). Washington



RELICS OF THE BATTLE OF MONMOUTH.

did not pursue, and the British escaped to New York. They had lost 1,000 men by desertion while crossing New Jersey, and they left four officers and 245 non-commissioned officers and privates on the field, taking with them many of the wounded. They lost fifty-nine by the terrible heat of the day. More than fifty Americans died from the same cause. The loss of the Americans was 228, killed, wounded, and missing. Many of the latter afterwards returned to the army. Washington marched northward, crossed the Hudson River, and encamped in Westchester county, N. Y., until late in the autumn. See PITCHER, MOLLY.

Monocacy, BATTLE OF. On July 5, 1864, GEN. LEW. WALLACE (*q. v.*), in command of the Middle Department, with his headquarters at Baltimore, received information that GEN. JUBAL A. EARLY (*q. v.*), with 15,000 or 20,000 Confederates, who had invaded Maryland, was marching on Baltimore. Already General Grant had been informed of the invasion, and had sent General Wright, with the 6th Corps, to protect the capital. Gen. E. B. Tyler was at Frederick with about 1,000 troops, and Wallace gathered there, on the 6th, all the available troops in his department that could be spared from the duties of watching the railways leading into Baltimore from the North. He sent Colonel Clendennin to search for positive information with 400 men and a section of artillery, and at Middletown he encountered 1,000 Confederates under Bradley Johnson, a Marylander, who pushed him steadily back towards Frederick. There was a sharp fight near Frederick that day (July 7, 1864), and, at 6 P.M. Gilpin's regiment charged the Confederates and drove them back to the mountains. Satisfied that the destination of the invaders was Washington, and knowing it was then too weak in troops to resist the Confederates successfully, Wallace threw his little force in front of them to impede their march. He withdrew his troops from Frederick to a chosen position on the left bank of the Monocacy, and on the 9th fought the invaders desperately for eight hours. Wallace had been joined by the brigade of Ricketts, the advance of the oncoming 6th Corps. Although finally defeated, this little band of Nationals had kept the invading host at bay long enough to allow the remainder of the 6th Corps to reach Washington. Wallace's troops had thus gained a real victory that saved the capital. So declared the Secretary of War and the lieutenant-general. The check to the Con-



PLAN OF THE BATTLE OF MONOCACY.

federates, altogether, was over thirty hours. The number of National troops engaged in the battle was about 5,500; the Confederates numbered about 20,000. The Nationals lost 1,959 men, of whom 98 were killed, 579 wounded, and 1,282 missing.

Monongahela, Battle of. See Braddock, Edward.

Monroe, Andrew, clergyman; born in Virginia, Oct. 29, 1792; became a Methodist preacher in 1815, joining the Ohio conference. He was sent as a circuit rider to the outline settlements in Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri, the greater portion of his labors being in Missouri, where he was known as the patriot of Methodism. He died in Mexico, Mo., Nov. 18, 1871.

Monroe, Elizabeth Kortwright, wife of President James Monroe; born in New York City in 1768; married Monroe in 1786; accompanied her husband abroad in 1794 and 1803. She was instrumental in obtaining the release of Madame Lafayette during the French Revolution. She died in Loudon county, Va., in 1830.

Monroe, Harriet, poet; born in Chicago, Ill., Dec. 23, 1860. She was the author of the Columbian ode which was read and sung at the opening ceremonies of the 400th anniversary of the discovery of America, Oct. 21, 1892.

MONROE, JAMES

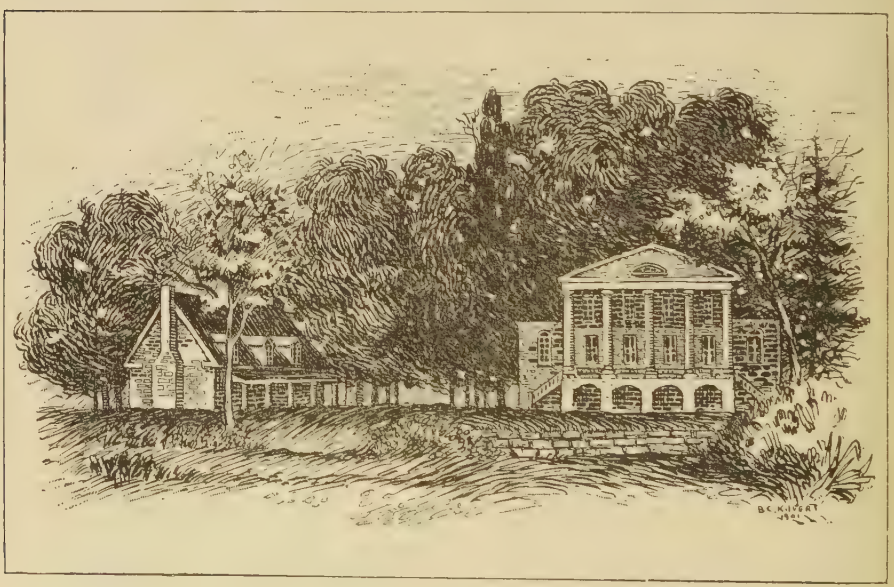
Monroe, James, fifth President of the United States; born in Westmoreland county, Va., April 28, 1759; graduated at the College of William and Mary in 1776; immediately joined the patriot army as a cadet in Mercer's regiment; and was in the engagements at Harlem Plains, White Plains, and Trenton. He was wounded in the latter engagement, and was promoted to a captaincy for his bravery. In 1777–78 he was aide to Lord Stirling, and was distinguished at the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. After the latter battle he left the army, studied law under Jefferson, and again took up arms when Virginia was invaded by Cornwallis. In 1780 he visited the Southern army under De Kalb as military commissioner from Virginia, and was a member of the Virginia Assembly in 1782. He soon became a member of the executive council, a delegate in Congress, and in his State convention in 1788 he opposed the ratification of the national Constitution. From 1790 to 1794 he was United States Senator. In May of the latter year he was appointed minister to France, though an opponent of Washington's administration, but was recalled in 1796, because of his opposition to Jay's treaty (see Jay, John). In defence of his conduct, he published the whole diplomatic correspondence with his government while he was in Paris. From 1799 to 1802 he was governor of Virginia, and in 1802 was sent as envoy to France. The next year he was United States minister at the Court of St. James. In 1805 he was associated with Charles C. Pinckney (*q. v.*) in a negotiation with Spain, and, with William Pinkney, he negotiated a treaty with England in 1807, which Jefferson rejected because it did not provide against impressments. Serving in his State Assembly, he was again elected governor in 1811, and was Madison's Secretary of State during a large portion of that President's administration. From September, 1814, to March, 1815, he performed the duties of Secretary of War.

Before the close of Madison's administration the Federal party had so much declined in strength that a nomination for office by the Democratic party was equivalent to an election. On March 16, 1816, a congressional Democratic caucus was held, at which the names of James Monroe and William H. Crawford (*q. v.*) were presented for nomination. There were many who did not like Monroe who were ready to press the nomination of Crawford, and, had he been inclined for a struggle, he might have received the votes of the caucus. There had been much intriguing before the caucus. At that gathering Henry Clay and John Taylor, of New York, moved that congressional caucus nominations for the Presidency were inexpedient and ought not to be continued. These motions having failed, Monroe received 65 votes to 54 for Crawford. Daniel D. Tompkins received 85 votes of the

caucus for Vice-President to 30 for Governor Snyder. After the election in the autumn it was found, when the votes of the electoral colleges were counted, that Monroe had received the votes of all the States excepting Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Delaware, which gave Rufus King 34 electoral votes. Three federal electors chosen in Maryland and one in Delaware did not vote at all.

Monroe received 183 of the 221 votes, and Tompkins the same number for Vice-President. Monroe was inaugurated on March 4, 1817, and entered upon the duties of his office under the most favorable circumstances. His inaugural address was liberal in its tone and gave general satisfaction; and the beginning of his administration was regarded as the dawning of an "era of good feeling." President Monroe had been urged by General Jackson, with whom he was on terms of great intimacy, to disregard former party divisions in the formation of his cabinet, and to use his influence and power to destroy party spirit by appointing the best men to office without regard to their political preferences. He preferred to follow the example of Jefferson and Madison, and appoint only those of his own political faith. He chose John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, for Secretary of State; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury; and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, for Secretary of War. These were all aspirants for the Presidential chair. B. W. Crowninshield was continued Secretary of the Navy, to which office Madison had appointed him in December, 1814, and Richard Rush continued in the office of Attorney-General until succeeded, Nov. 13, 1817, by William Wirt. Return J. Meigs was continued Postmaster-General, to which office Madison had appointed him in 1817.

After his first term, so faithfully had President Monroe adhered to the promises of his inaugural address, that he was not only renominated, with Tompkins as Vice-President, but was elected by an almost unanimous vote in the electoral college. Only one elector voted against Monroe, and but fourteen against Tompkins. That reelection was at the commencement of a new political era. The reannexation of Florida to the United States, the recognized extension of the domain of the republic to the Pacific Ocean, and the partition of those new acquisitions between



MONROE'S RESIDENCE AT OAK HILL, VA.

TOMB OF MONROE.

freedom and slavery marked a new departure. All the old landmarks of party had been uprooted by embargoes and the war, and, by the question of the United States Bank, internal improvements, and the tariff, had been almost completely swept away. During his administration he recognized the independence of several of the South American states, and promulgated the "Monroe Doctrine" (see below). He retired to private life in 1825, and in 1831, after the death of his wife, he left Virginia and made his residence with his son-in-law, Samuel L. Gouverneur, in the city of New York, where he died, July 4, 1831.

The Monroe Doctrine.—This great national principle, which the United States has most strenuously maintained ever since its enunciation, was proclaimed by President Monroe in his message to Congress on Dec. 2, 1823. The declaration itself consists of but few words and is here printed in *italics;* but to afford a fuller view of its far-reaching import, as well as to show the national conditions which called it forth, the entire message is reproduced as follows:

Fellow-citizens of the Senate and House of Representatives,—Many important subjects will claim your attention during the present session, of which I shall endeavor to give, in aid of your deliberations, a just idea in this communication. I undertake this duty with diffidence, from the vast extent of the interests on which I have to treat and of their great importance to every portion of our Union. I enter on it with zeal, from thorough conviction that there never was a period since the establishment of our Revolution when, regarding the condition of the civilized world and its bearing on us, there was greater necessity for devotion in the public servants to their respective duties, or for virtue, patriotism, and union in our constituents.

Meeting in you a new Congress, I deem it proper to present this view of public affairs in greater detail than might otherwise be necessary. I do it, however, with peculiar satisfaction, from a knowledge that in this respect I shall comply more fully with the sound principles of our government. The people being with us exclusively the sovereign, it is indispensable that full information be laid before them on all important subjects to enable them to exercise that high power with complete effect. If kept in the dark, they must be incompetent to it. We are all liable to error, and those who are engaged in the management of public affairs are more subject to excitement, and to be led astray by their particular interests and passions, than the great body of our constituents, who, being at home in the pursuit of their ordinary avocations, are calm but deeply interested spectators of events, and of the conduct of those who are parties to them. To the people, every department of the government and every individual in each are responsible, and the more full their information the better they can judge of the wisdom of the policy pursued, and of the conduct of each in regard to it. From their dispassionate judgment much aid may always be obtained, while their approbation will form the greatest incentive and most gratifying reward for virtuous actions, and the dread of their censure the best security against the abuse of their confidence. Their interests in all vital questions are the same, and the bond by sentiment as well as by interest will be proportionately strengthened as they are

better informed of the real state of public affairs, especially in difficult conjunctures. It is by such knowledge that local prejudices and jealousies are surmounted, and that a national policy, extending its fostering care and protection to all the great interests of our Union, is formed and steadily adhered to.

A precise knowledge of our relations with foreign powers, as respects our negotiations and transactions with each, is thought to be particularly necessary. Equally necessary is it that we should form a just estimate of our resources, revenue, and progress in every kind of improvement connected with the national prosperity and public defence. It is by rendering justice to other nations that we may expect it from them. It is by our ability to resent injuries and redress wrongs that we may avoid them.

The commissioners under the fifth article of the treaty of Ghent, having disagreed in their opinions respecting that portion of the boundary between the territories of the United States and of Great Britain, the establishment of which had been submitted to them, have made their respective reports in compliance with that article, that the same might be referred to the decision of a friendly power. It being manifest, however, that it would be difficult, if not impossible, for any power to perform that office without great delay and much inconvenience to itself, a proposal has been made by this government, and acceded to by that of Great Britain, to endeavor to establish that boundary by amicable negotiation. It appearing, from long experience, that no satisfactory arrangement could be formed of the commercial intercourse between the United States and the British colonies in this hemisphere by legislative acts, while each party pursued its own course without agreement or concert with the other, a proposal has been made to the British government to regulate this commerce by treaty, as it has been to arrange in like manner the just claim of the citizens of the United States inhabiting the States and Territories bordering on the lakes and rivers which empty into the St. Lawrence to the navigation of that river to the ocean. For these and other objects of high importance to the interests of both parties, a negotiation has been opened with the British government which, it is hoped, will have a satisfactory result.

The commissioners under the sixth and seventh articles of the treaty of Ghent, having successfully closed their labors in relation to the sixth, have proceeded to the discharge of those relating to the seventh. Their progress in the extensive survey required for the performance of their duties, justifies the presumption that it will be completed in the ensuing year.

The negotiation which had been long depending with the French government on several important subjects, and particularly for a just indemnity for losses sustained in the late wars by the citizens of the United States, under unjustifiable seizures and confiscations of their property, has not as yet had the desired effect. As this claim rests on the same principle with others which have been admitted by the French government, it is not perceived on what just grounds it can be rejected. A minister will be immediately appointed to proceed to France and resume the negotiations on this and other subjects which may arise between the two nations.

At the proposal of the Russian imperial government, made through the minister of the Emperor residing here, a full power and instructions have been transmitted to the minister of the United States at St. Petersburg, to arrange, by amicable negotiations, the respective rights and interests of the two nations on the northwest coast of this continent. A similar proposal has been made by his Imperial Majesty to the government of Great Britain, which has likewise been acceded to. The government of the United States has been desirous, by this friendly proceeding, of manifesting the great value which they have invariably attached to the friendship of the Emperor, and their solicitude to cultivate the best understanding with his government. In the discussions to which this interest has given rise, and in the arrangements by which they may terminate, the occasion has been judged proper for asserting, as a principle in which the rights and interests of the United States are involved, that the American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed

James Monroe

and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European powers.

Since the close of the last session of Congress, the commissioners and arbitrators for ascertaining and determining the amount of indemnification which may be due to citizens of the United States under the decision of his Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Russia, in conformity to the convention concluded at St. Petersburg, on July 12, 1822, have assembled in this city and organized themselves as a board for the performance of the duties assigned to them by that treaty. The commission constituted under the eleventh article of the treaty of Feb. 22, 1819, between the United States and Spain, is also in session here; and as the term of three years limited by the treaty for the execution of the trust will expire before the period of the next regular meeting of Congress, the attention of the legislature will be drawn to the measures which may be necessary to accomplish the objects for which the commission was instituted.

In compliance with a resolution of the House of Representatives adopted at their last session, instructions have been given to all the ministers of the United States accredited to the powers of Europe and America to propose the proscription of the African slave-trade by classing it under the denomination, and inflicting on its perpetrators the punishment, of piracy. Should this proposal be acceded to, it is not doubted that this odious and criminal practice will be promptly and entirely suppressed. It is earnestly hoped that it will be acceded to from a firm belief that it is the most effectual expedient that can be adopted for the purpose.

At the commencement of the recent war between France and Spain it was declared by the French government that it would grant no commissions to privateers, that neither the commerce of Spain herself nor of the neutral nations should be molested by the naval force of France, except in the breach of a lawful blockade. This declaration, which appears to have been faithfully carried into effect, concurring with principles proclaimed and cherished by the United States from the first establishment of their independence, suggested the hope that the time had arrived when the proposal for adopting it as a permanent and invariable rule in all future maritime wars might meet the favorable consideration of the great European powers. Instructions have accordingly been given to our ministers with France, Russia, and Great Britain, to make these proposals to their respective governments; and when the friends of humanity reflect on the essential amelioration to the condition of the human race which would result from the abolition of private war on the sea, and on the great facility by which it might be accomplished, requiring only the consent of a few sovereigns, an earnest hope is indulged that these overtures will meet with an attention animated by the spirit in which they were made, and that they will ultimately be successful.

The ministers who were appointed to the republics of Colombia and Buenos Ayres during the last session of Congress proceeded, shortly afterwards, to their destinations. Of their arrival there official intelligence has not yet been received. The minister appointed to the republic of Chile will sail in a few days. An early appointment will also be made to Mexico. A minister has been received from Colombia; and the other governments have been informed that ministers, or diplomatic agents of inferior grade, would be received from each accordingly, as they might prefer the one or the other.

The minister appointed to Spain proceeded, soon after his appointment, for Cadiz, the residence of the sovereign to whom he was accredited. In approaching that port, the frigate which conveyed him was warned off by the commander of the French squadron by which it was blockaded, and not permitted to enter, although apprised by the captain of the frigate of the public character of the person whom he had on board, the landing of whom was the sole object of his proposed entry. This act, being considered an infringement of the rights of ambassadors and of nations, will form a just cause of complaint to the government of France against the officer by whom it was committed.

The actual condition of the public finances more than realizes the favorable anticipations that were entertained of it

at the opening of the last session of Congress. On Jan. 1 there was a balance in the treasury of $4,237,427.55. From that time to Sept. 30 the receipts amounted to upward of $16,100,000, and the expenditures to $11,400,000. During the fourth quarter of the year it is estimated that the receipts will at least equal the expenditures, and that there will remain in the treasury on Jan. 1 next a surplus of nearly $9,000,000.

On Jan. 1, 1825, a large amount of the war debt and a part of the Revolutionary debt will become redeemable. Additional portions of the former will continue to become redeemable annually until the year 1835. It is believed, however, that, if the United States remain at peace, the whole of that debt may be redeemed by the ordinary revenue of those years, during that period, under the provisions of the act of March 3, 1817, creating the sinking fund; and in that case the only part of the debt that will remain after the year 1835 will be the $7,000,000 of 5 per cent. stock subscribed to the Bank of the United States, and the 3 per cent. Revolutionary debt, amounting to $13,296,099.06, both of which are redeemable at the pleasure of the government.

The state of the army and its organization and discipline has been gradually improving for several years, and has now attained a high degree of perfection. The military disbursements have been regularly made, and the accounts regularly and promptly rendered for settlement. The supplies of various descriptions have been of good quality, and regularly issued at all of the posts. A system of economy and accountability has been introduced into every branch of the service, which admits of little additional improvement. This desirable state has been attained by the act reorganizing the staff of the army, passed on April 14, 1818.

The moneys appropriated for fortifications have been regularly and economically applied, and all the works advanced as rapidly as the amount appropriated would admit. Three important works will be completed in the course of this year—that is, Fort Washington, Fort Delaware, and the fort at the Rigolets in Louisiana.

The board of engineers and the topographical corps have been in constant and active service, in surveying the coast, and projecting the works necessary for its defence.

The Military Academy has attained a degree of perfection in its discipline and instruction equal, as is believed, to any institution of its kind in any country.

The money appropriated for the use of the ordnance department has been regularly and economically applied. The fabrication of arms at the national armories, and by contract with the department, has been gradually improving in quality and cheapness. It is believed that their quality is now such as to admit of but little improvement.

The completion of the fortifications renders it necessary that there should be a suitable appropriation for the purpose of fabricating the cannon and carriages necessary for those works.

Under the appropriation of $5,000 for exploring the Western waters for the location of a site for a Western armory, a commission was constituted, consisting of Colonel McRee, Colonel Lee, and Captain Talcott, who have been engaged in exploring the country. They have not yet reported the result of their labors, but it is believed that they will be prepared to do it at an early part of the session of Congress.

During the month of June last, General Ashley and his party, who were trading under a license from the government, were attacked by the Ricarees while peaceably trading with the Indians at their request. Several of the party were killed or wounded, and their property taken or destroyed.

Colonel Leavenworth, who commanded Fort Atkinson, at the Council Bluffs, the most western post, apprehending that the hostile spirit of the Ricarees would extend to other tribes in that quarter, and that thereby the lives of the traders on the Missouri, and the peace of the frontier, would be endangered, took immediate measures to check the evil.

With a detachment of the regiment stationed at the Bluffs, he successfully attacked the Ricaree village, and it is hoped that such an impression has been made on them, as well as on the other

tribes on the Missouri, as will prevent a recurrence of future hostility.

The report of the Secretary of War, which is herewith transmitted, will exhibit in greater detail the condition of the department in its various branches, and the progress which has been made in its administration during the first three quarters of the year.

I transmit a return of the militia of the several States, according to the last reports which have been made by the proper officers in each to the Department of War. By reference to this return, it will be seen that it is not complete, although great exertions have been made to make it so. As the defence, and even the liberties, of the country must depend, in times of imminent danger, on the militia, it is of the highest importance that it be well organized, armed, and disciplined, throughout the Union. The report of the Secretary of War shows the progress made during the first three quarters of the present year, by the application of the fund appropriated for arming the militia. Much difficulty is found in distributing the arms according to the act of Congress providing for it, from the failure of the proper departments in many of the States to make regular returns. The act of May 12, 1820, provides that the system of tactics and regulations of the various corps in the regular army shall be extended to the militia. This act has been very imperfectly executed, from the want of uniformity in the organization of the militia, proceeding from the defects of the system itself, and especially in its application to that main arm of the public defence. It is thought that this important subject, in all its branches, merits the attention of Congress.

The report of the Secretary of the Navy, which is now communicated, furnishes an account of the administration of that department for the first three quarters of the present year, with the progress made in augmenting the navy, and the manner in which the vessels in commission have been employed.

The usual force has been maintained in the Mediterranean Sea, the Pacific Ocean, and along the Atlantic coast, and has afforded the necessary protection to our commerce in those seas.

In the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico our naval force has been augmented by the addition of several small vessels, provided for by the "act authorizing an additional naval force for the suppression of piracy," passed by Congress at their last session. That armament has been eminently successful in the accomplishment of its object. The piracies by which our commerce in the neighborhood of the island of Cuba had been afflicted have been repressed, and the confidence of our merchants, in a great measure, restored.

The patriotic zeal and enterprise of Commodore Porter, to whom the command of the expedition was confided, has been fully seconded by the officers and men under his command; and, in reflecting with high satisfaction on the honorable manner in which they have sustained the reputation of their country and its navy, the sentiment is alloyed only by a concern that, in the fulfilment of that arduous service, the diseases incident to the season and to the climate in which it was discharged have deprived the nation of many useful lives, and among them of several officers of great promise.

In the month of August a very malignant fever made its appearance at Thompson's Island, which threatened the destruction of our station there. Many perished, and the commanding officer was severely attacked. Uncertain as to his fate, and knowing that most of the medical officers had been rendered incapable of discharging their duties, it was thought expedient to send to that post an officer of rank and experience, with several skilful surgeons, to ascertain the origin of the fever, and the probability of its recurrence there in future seasons; to furnish every assistance to those who were suffering, and, if practicable, to avoid the necessity of abandoning so important a station. Commodore Rodgers, with a promptitude which did him honor, cheerfully accepted that trust, and has discharged it in the manner anticipated from his skill and patriotism. Before his arrival, Commodore Porter, with the greater part of the squadron, had removed from the island, and returned to the United States, in consequence of the prevailing sickness. Much useful information has, however, been obtained as to the state of the island, and great

relief afforded to those who had been necessarily left there.

Although our expedition, co-operating with an invigorated administration of the government of the island of Cuba, and with the corresponding active exertions of a British naval force in the same seas, have almost entirely destroyed the unlicensed piracies from that island, the success of our exertions has not been equally effectual to suppress the same crime, under other pretences and colors, in the neighboring island of Porto Rico. They have been committed there under the abusive issue of Spanish commissions. At an early period of the present year remonstrances were made to the governor of that island by an agent, who was sent for the purpose, against those outrages on the peaceful commerce of the United States, of which many had occurred. That officer, professing his own want of authority to make satisfaction for our just complaints, answered only by a reference of them to the government of Spain. The minister of the United States to that Court was specially instructed to urge the necessity of the immediate and effectual interposition of that government, directing restitution and indemnity for wrongs already committed and interdicting the repetition of them. The minister, as has been seen, was debarred access to the Spanish government, and, in the mean time, several new cases of flagrant outrage have occurred, and citizens of the United States in the island of Porto Rico have suffered, and others been threatened with assassination, for asserting their unquestionable rights, even before the lawful tribunals of the country.

The usual orders have been given to all our public ships to seize American vessels engaged in the slave-trade, and bring them in for adjudication; and I have the gratification to state that not one so employed has been discovered, and there is good reason to believe that our flag is now seldom, if at all, disgraced by that traffic.

It is a source of great satisfaction that we are always enabled to recur to the conduct of our navy with pride and commendation. As a means of national defence, it enjoys the public confidence, and is steadily assuming additional importance. It is submitted, whether a more efficient and equally economical organization of it might not, in several respects, be effected. It is supposed that higher grades than now exist by law would be useful. They would afford well-merited rewards to those who have long and faithfully served their country; present the best incentives to good conduct, and the best means of insuring a proper discipline; destroy the inequality in that respect between the military and naval services, and relieve our officers from many inconveniences and mortifications which occur when our vessels meet those of other nations—ours being the only service in which such grades do not exist.

A report of the Postmaster-General, which accompanies this communication, will show the present state of the Post-office Department, and its general operations for some years past.

There is established by law 88,600 miles of post-roads, on which the mail is now transported 85,700 miles; and contracts have been made for its transportation on all the established routes, with one or two exceptions. There are 5,240 post-offices in the Union, and as many postmasters. The gross amount of postage which accrued from July 1, 1822, to July 1, 1823, was $1,114,345.12. During the same period the expenditures of the Post-office Department amounted to $1,169,885.50, and consisted of the following items: Compensation to postmasters, $353,995.98; incidental expenses, $30,866.37; transportation of the mail, $784,600.08; payments into the treasury, $423.08. On July 1 last there was due to the department, from postmasters, $135,245.28; from late postmasters and contractors, $256,749.31, making a total amount of balances due to the department of $391,994.59. These balances embrace all delinquencies of postmasters and contractors which have taken place since the organization of the department. There was due by the department to contractors, on July 1 last, $26,548.64.

The transportation of the mail within five years past has been greatly extended, and the expenditures of the department proportionately increased. Although the postage which has accrued within the last three years has fallen short of the expenditures $262,841.46, it appears that collections have been made from the outstand-

ing balances to meet the principal part of the current demands.

It is estimated that not more than $250,000 of the above balances can be collected, and that a considerable part of this sum can only be realized by a resort to legal process. Some improvement in the receipts for postage is expected. A prompt attention to the collection of moneys received by postmasters, it is believed, will enable the department to continue its operations without aid from the treasury, unless the expenditure shall be increased by the establishment of new mail-routes.

A revision of some parts of the post-office law may be necessary; and it is submitted whether it would not be proper to provide for the appointment of postmasters, where the compensation exceeds a certain amount, by nomination to the Senate, as other officers of the general government are appointed.

Having communicated my views to Congress at the commencement of the last session respecting the encouragement which ought to be given to our manufactures, and the principle on which it should be founded, I have only to add that those views remain unchanged, and that the present state of those countries with which we have the most immediate political relations and greatest commercial intercourse tends to confirm them. Under this impression, I recommend a review of the tariff, for the purpose of affording such additional protection to those articles which we are prepared to manufacture, or which are more immediately connected with the defence and independence of the country.

The actual state of the public accounts furnishes additional evidence of the efficiency of the present system of accountability in relation to the public expenditure. Of the money drawn from the treasury since March 4, 1817, the sum remaining unaccounted for on Sept. 30 last is more than $1,500,000 less than on Sept. 30 preceding; and during the same period a reduction of nearly $1,000,000 has been made in the amount of the unsettled accounts for moneys advanced previously to March 4, 1817. It will be obvious that, in proportion as the mass of accounts of the latter description is diminished by settlement, the difficulty of settling the residue is increased from the consideration that, in many instances, it can be obtained only by a legal process. For more precise details on this subject, I refer to a report from the first comptroller of the treasury.

The sum which was appropriated at the last session for the repair of the Cumberland road has been applied with good effect to that object. A final report has not yet been received from the agent who was appointed to superintend it. As soon as it is received it shall be communicated to Congress.

Many patriotic and enlightened citizens, who have made the subject an object of particular investigation, have suggested an improvement of still greater importance. They are of opinion that the waters of the Chesapeake and Ohio may be connected together by one continued canal, and at an expense far short of the value and importance of the object to be obtained. If this could be accomplished, it is impossible to calculate the beneficial consequences which would result from it. A great portion of the produce of the very fertile country through which it would pass would find a market through that channel. Troops might be moved with great facility in war, with cannon and every kind of munition, and in either direction. Connecting the Atlantic with the Western country, in a line passing through the seat of the national government, it would contribute essentially to strengthen the bond of Union itself. Believing, as I do, that Congress possess the right to appropriate money for such a national object (the jurisdiction remaining to the States through which the canal would pass), I submit it to your consideration whether it may not be advisable to authorize, by an adequate appropriation, the employment of a suitable number of the officers of the corps of engineers to examine the unexplored ground during the next season, and to report their opinion thereon. It will likewise be proper to extend their examination to the several routes through which the waters of the Ohio may be connected, by canal, with those of Lake Erie.

As the Cumberland road will require annual repair, and Congress have not

thought it expedient to recommend to the States an amendment to the Constitution, for the purpose of vesting in the United States a power to adopt and execute a system of internal improvement, it is also submitted to your consideration whether it may not be expedient to authorize the executive to enter into an arrangement with the several States through which the road passes to establish tolls each within its limits, for the purpose of defraying the expense of future repairs, and of providing also, by suitable penalties, for its protection against future injuries.

The act of Congress of May 7, 1822, appropriated the sum of $22,700 for the purpose of erecting two piers as a shelter for vessels from ice near Cape Henlopen, Delaware Bay. To effect the object of the act, the officers of the board of engineers, with Commodore Bainbridge, were directed to prepare plans and estimates of piers sufficient to answer the purpose intended by the act. It appears by their report, which accompanies the documents from the War Department, that the appropriation is not adequate to the purpose intended; and, as the piers would be of great service, both to the navigation of the Delaware Bay and the protection of vessels on the adjacent parts of the coast, I submit for the consideration of Congress whether additional and sufficient appropriation should not be made.

The board of engineers were also directed to examine and survey the entrance of the harbor of the port of Presque Isle in Pennsylvania, in order to make an estimate of the expense of removing the obstructions to the entrance, with a plan of the best mode of effecting the same, under the appropriation for that purpose by act of Congress passed March 3 last. The report of the board accompanies the papers from the War Department, and is submitted for the consideration of Congress.

A strong hope has been long entertained, founded on the heroic struggle of the Greeks, that they would succeed in their contest, and resume their equal station among the nations of the earth. It is believed that the whole civilized world takes a deep interest in their welfare. Although no power has declared in their favor, yet none, according to our information, has taken part against them. Their cause and their name have protected them from dangers which might ere this have overwhelmed any other people. The ordinary calculations of interest and of acquisition, with a view to aggrandizement, which mingle so much in the transactions of nations, seem to have had no effect in regard to them. From the facts which have come to our knowledge, there is good cause to believe that their enemy has lost forever all dominion over them; that Greece will become again an independent nation. That she may obtain that rank is the object of our most ardent wishes.

It was stated at the commencement of the last session that a great effort was then making in Spain and Portugal to improve the condition of the people of those countries, and that it appeared to be conducted with extraordinary moderation. It need scarcely be remarked that the result has been, so far, very different from what was then anticipated. Of events in that quarter of the globe with which we have so much intercourse, and from which we derive our origin, we have always been anxious and interested spectators. The citizens of the United States cherish sentiments the most friendly in favor of the liberty and happiness of their fellow-men on that side of the Atlantic. *In the wars of the European powers in matters relating to themselves we have never taken any part, nor does it comport with our policy so to do. It is only when our rights are invaded or seriously menaced that we resent injuries or make preparation for our defence. With the movements in this hemisphere we are, of necessity, more immediately connected, and by causes which must be obvious to all enlightened and impartial observers. The political system of the allied powers is essentially different in this respect from that of America. This difference proceeds from that which exists in their respective governments. And to the defence of our own, which has been achieved by the loss of so much blood and treasure, and matured by the wisdom of their most enlightened citizens, and under which we have enjoyed unexampled felicity, this whole nation is devoted. We owe it, therefore, to candor, and to the amicable relations existing between*

the United States and those powers, to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered, and shall not interfere. But with the governments who have declared their independence, and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States. In the war between these new governments and Spain we declared our neutrality at the time of their recognition, and to this we have adhered, and shall continue to adhere, provided no change shall occur which, in the judgment of the competent authorities of this government, shall make a corresponding change on the part of the United States indispensable to their security.

The late events in Spain and Portugal show that Europe is still unsettled. Of this important fact no stronger proof can be adduced than that the allied powers should have thought it proper, on any principle satisfactory to themselves, to have interposed, by force, in the internal concerns of Spain. To what extent such interposition may be carried, on the same principle, is a question in which all independent powers whose governments differ from theirs are interested, even those most remote, and surely none more so than the United States. Our policy in regard to Europe, which was adopted at an early stage of the wars which have so long agitated that quarter of the globe, nevertheless remains the same, which is, not to interfere in the internal concerns of any of its powers; to consider the government *de facto* as the legitimate government for us; to cultivate friendly relations with it, and to preserve those relations by a frank, firm, and manly policy, meeting, in all instances, the just claims of every power; submitting to injuries from none. But in regard to these continents, circumstances are eminently and conspicuously different. It is impossible that the allied powers should extend their political system to any portion of either continent without endangering our peace and happiness; nor can any one believe that our southern brethren, if left to themselves, would adopt it of their own accord. It is equally impossible, therefore, that we should behold such interposition, in any form, with indifference. If we look to the comparative strength and resources of Spain and those new governments, and their distance from each other, it must be obvious that she can never subdue them. It is still the true policy of the United States to leave the parties to themselves, in the hope that other powers will pursue the same course.

If we compare the present condition of our Union with its actual state at the close of our Revolution, the history of the world furnishes no example of a progress in improvement in all the important circumstances which constitute the happiness of a nation which bears any resemblance to it. At the first epoch our population did not exceed 3,000,000. By the last census it amounted to about 10,000,000, and, what is more extraordinary, it is almost altogether native, for the emigration from other countries has been inconsiderable. At the first epoch half the territory within our acknowledged limits was uninhabited and a wilderness. Since then new territory has been acquired of vast extent, comprising within it many rivers, particularly the Mississippi, the navigation of which to the ocean was of the highest importance to the original States. Over this territory our population has expanded in every direction, and new States have been established almost equal in number to those which formed the first bond of our Union. This expansion of our population and accession of new States to our Union have had the happiest effect on all its highest interests. That it has eminently augmented our resources and added to our strength and respectability as a power is admitted by all. But it is not in these important circumstances only that this happy effect is felt. It is manifest that, by enlarging the basis of our system and increasing the number of

States, the system itself has been greatly strengthened in both its branches. Consolidation and disunion have thereby been rendered equally impracticable. Each government, confiding in its own strength, has less to apprehend from the other; and in consequence, each enjoying a greater freedom of action, is rendered more efficient for all the purposes for which it was instituted. It is unnecessary to treat here of the vast improvement made in the system itself by the adoption of this Constitution, and of its happy effect in elevating the character and in protecting the rights of the nation as well as of individuals. To what, then, do we owe these blessings? It is known to all that we derive them from the excellence of our institutions. Ought we not, then, to adopt every measure which may be necessary to perpetuate them?

Monroe, JAMES, military officer; born in Albemarle county, Va., Sept. 10, 1799; graduated at West Point in 1815; participated in the war with Algiers; was wounded in an action with the *Mashouda* off the coast of Spain. He resigned from the army in 1832 and settled in New York City, where he became an alderman in 1833. He was elected to Congress in 1839. He died in Orange, N. J., Sept. 7, 1870.

Monroe Doctrine, a doctrine that has been repeatedly reaffirmed as the settled policy of the people and government of the United States. See MONROE, JAMES, for President's message in which the statement of this "doctrine" first appeared; VENEZUELA.

Monroe, FORT (official form), planned to be the most extensive military work in the United States. Its construction was begun in 1819, and was completed at a cost of $2,500,000. It was named in honor of President Monroe. Its walls, faced with heavy blocks of granite, were 35 feet in thickness and casemated below, and were entirely surrounded by a deep moat filled with water. It stands upon a peninsula known as Old Point Comfort, which is connected with the main by a narrow isthmus of sand and by a bridge in the direction of the village of Hampton.

FORT MONROE IN 1861.

There were sixty-five acres of land within its walls, and it was armed with almost 400 great guns when the Civil War broke out. It had at that time a garrison of only 300 men, under Col. Justin Dimick, U. S. A. Its possession was coveted by the Confederates, but Dimick had turned some of its cannon landward. These taught the Confederates, civil and military, prudence, wisdom, and discretion. Gen. B. F. Butler, having been appointed commander of the Department of Virginia, with his headquarters at Fort Monroe, arrived there on May 22, 1861, and took the chief command, with troops sufficient to insure its safety against any attacks of the Confederates. Butler's first care was to ascertain the practicability of a march upon and seizure of Richmond, then the seat of the Confederate government. Its capture was desired by the national government, but no troops could then be spared from Washington. Fort Monroe was firmly held by the Nationals during the war. It was then as now an important post, for it is the key to the principal waters of Virginia. Since the close of the Civil War the War Department has maintained a noteworthy artillery school at this post. See also LEAVENWORTH, FORT; RILEY, FORT; and WILLETT'S POINT.

Montagu, CHARLES, first Earl of Halifax, statesman; born April 16, 1661; appointed a lord of the treasury in 1692; induced Parliament to raise a large loan, which was the beginning of the national debt of England. He became chancellor of the exchequer in 1694; Baron of Halifax in 1700; Earl of Halifax in 1714. He died May 19, 1715.

Montague, WILLIAM LEWIS, linguist; born in Belchertown, Mass., April 6, 1831; graduated at Amherst College in 1855; instructor in Latin and Greek in Williston Seminary; Professor of Modern Languages in Amherst College in 1864–94; and in 1896 removed to Paris, where he has since resided. His publication include *Spanish and Italian Grammars; Introduction to Italian Literature,* etc. He also edited *Biographical Records of the Alumni and Non-Graduate Members of Amherst College, 1821–71,* etc.

Montana, STATE OF, is bounded on the north by British Columbia and the Northwest Territory; on the east by North and South Dakota; on the south by Wyoming and Idaho; and on the west by Idaho; area, 146,080 square miles; capital, Helena; admitted to the Union Nov. 8, 1889.

STATE SEAL OF MONTANA.

By act of Congress in May, 1864, Montana was taken from the eastern portion of Idaho and organized as a separate Territory. The State is exceedingly rich in mineral productions, especially gold, silver, copper, lead, and coal. There are also very large and excellent tracts of grazing land. The population in 1890 was 132,159; in 1900, 243,329. See UNITED STATES, MONTANA, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Sydney Edgerton	term begins	June 22, 1864
Thos. Francis Meagher.	acting	1865
Green Clay Smith	term begins	July 13, 1866
James M. Ashley	"	April 9, 1869
Benjamin F. Potts	"	July 13, 1870
John Schuyler Crosby	"	1883
B. Platt Carpenter	"	1884
Samuel T. Hauser	"	1885
Preston H. Leslie	"	1887
Benjamin F. White	"	1889

STATE GOVERNORS.

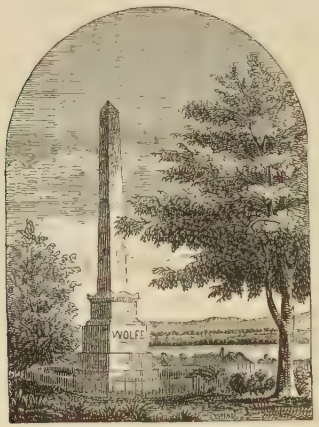
Joseph K. Toole	term begins	Nov. 8, 1889
John E. Rickards	"	Jan. 1893
Robert B. Smith	"	" 1897
Joseph K. Toole	"	" 1901

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Wilbur F. Sanders	51st	1890 to 1893
Thomas C. Power	51st to 54th	1890 " 1895
Vacant	53d	
Lee Mantle	54th to 56th	1895 " 1899
Thomas H. Carter	54th " ——	1895 " 1901
William A. Clark	56th " ——	1901 " 1907
Paris Gibson	56th " ——	1901 " 1905

Montcalm, GOZON DE ST. VÉRAN, LOUIS JOSEPH, MARQUIS DE, military officer; born

at the Château Candiac, near Nismes, France, Feb. 28, 1712. Well educated, he entered the French army at the age of fourteen years, distinguished himself in Germany in the War of the Austrian Succession, and gained the rank of colonel for his conduct in the disastrous battle of Piacenza, in Italy, in 1746. In 1756 he was appointed to the command of the French troops in Canada, where, in the three campaigns which he conducted, he displayed skill, courage, and humanity. Weakly seconded by his government, he did not accomplish what he might have done. He prepared, with all the means at his command, for the struggle for the supremacy of French dominion in America, in 1759, in which he lost his life. He had



WOLFE AND MONTCALM'S MONUMENT.

resolved, he said, "to find his grave under the ruins of the colony," and such was his fate. The English had spared nothing to make the campaign a decisive one. The final struggle occurred in Quebec, and there, on Sept. 13, 1759, he was mortally wounded, and died the next day. Wolfe, the commander of the English, was mortally wounded at the same time. When Montcalm was told that his death was near, he calmly replied, "So much the better; I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." A fine monument stands on Cape Diamond, at Quebec, erected to the memory of both Montcalm and Wolfe. The skull of Montcalm, with a military coat-collar of blue velvet embroidered with gold lace, is preserved in the Ursuline convent at Quebec. See QUEBEC; WOLFE, JAMES.

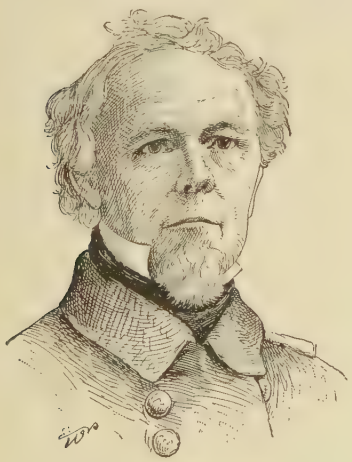
Monterey, CAPTURE OF. After General Taylor had entered Mexico at Matamoras, he remained there until September, waiting for further instructions from his government and reinforcements for his army. Early in September the first division of his army, under Gen. W. J. Worth, moved towards Monterey, the capital of New Leon, which was strongly fortified, and then defended by General Ampudia with about 9,000 Mexican troops. Taylor soon joined Worth, and they encamped within 3 miles of the city, on Sept. 19, with about 7,000 men, and on the morning of the 21st attacked the stronghold. Joined by other divisions of the army, the assault became general on the 23d, and the conflict in the streets was dreadful. The Mexicans fired volleys of musketry from the windows of the strong store-houses upon the invaders, and the carnage was terrible. Finally, on the fourth day of the siege, Ampudia asked for a truce. It was granted, and he prepared to evacuate the city. Taylor demanded absolute surrender, which was made on the 24th, when General Worth's division was quartered in the city, and General Taylor, granting an armistice for eight weeks if permitted by his government, encamped with the remainder of his forces at Walnut Springs, a few miles from Monterey. In the siege of that city the Americans lost over 500 men. The Mexican loss was about double that number. See MEXICO, WAR WITH.

Montezuma, the last Aztec emperor of Mexico; born about 1470. Because of his merits as a warrior and priest, he was elected emperor in 1502. He was in the act of sweeping the stairs of the great temple-teocalle at Mexico when his elevation was announced to him. His sumptuous style of living and great public expenses caused a grievous imposition of taxes. This, with his haughty deportment, made many of his subjects discontented. His empire was invaded by Cortez in 1519, when he gave the audacious Spaniard, at first, great advantages by a temporizing policy. Cortez seized him and held him as a hostage. He would not accept Christianity in exchange for his

own religion, but he formally recognized the supremacy of the crown of Spain, to whom he sent an immense quantity of gold as tribute. While Cortez was about to assail a force sent against him by Velasquez, the Mexicans revolted against the Spaniards. Cortez either persuaded or compelled Montezuma to address his turbulent subjects and try to appease the rising tumult; but the latter, having lost respect for their emperor, assailed and wounded him with missiles. From the injuries thus received he died in June, 1520. See CORTEZ, HERNANDO; VELASQUEZ, DIEGO.

Montgomerie, JOHN, colonial governor; born in Ayrshire, Scotland; was officially attached to the person of King George II.; served several years in Parliament; and came to America in the capacity of governor of New York in 1728. He died in New York City, July 1, 1731.

Montgomery, JOHN BERRIEN, naval officer; born in Allentown, N. J., Nov. 17, 1794; entered the navy as midshipman in 1812; passed through the various grades until, in July, 1862, he became commodore, and in July, 1866, rear-admiral on the retired list. He served on Lake Ontario under Chauncey, and was in the *Niagara* with Perry at the battle on Lake Erie, and received a sword and thanks from Congress for his gallantry. He was with Decatur in the Mediterranean in 1815. In command of the sloop *Portsmouth* in the Pacific squadron (1845–48), he established the authority of the United States at various places along the coast of California. In 1861 he was in command of the Pacific squadron. He died in Carlisle, Pa., March 25, 1873.

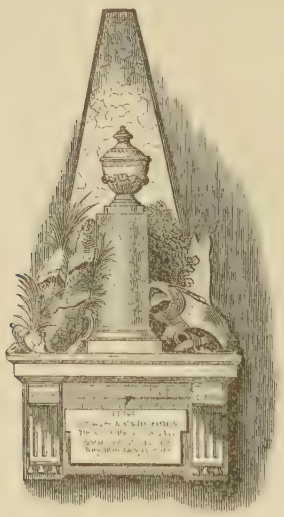


JOHN BERRIEN MONTGOMERY.

Richd Montgomery

Montgomery, RICHARD, military officer; born in Swords County, Dublin, Ireland, Dec. 2, 1736; was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and entered the army at the age of eighteen. Fighting under Wolfe at the siege of Louisburg (1756), he won the approval of that commander. After its surrender his regiment formed a part of Amherst's force, sent to reduce the French forts on Lake Champlain, in 1759. Montgomery became adjutant of his regiment in 1760, and was under Colonel Haviland in his march upon Montreal when that city was surrendered. In 1762, Montgomery was promoted to captain, and served in the campaign against Havana in the same year. After that he resided in this country awhile, but revisited England. In 1772 he sold his commission and came to America, and the following year he bought an estate at Rhinebeck, on the Hudson, and married a daughter of R. R. Livingston. He was chosen representative in the Colonial Assembly, and was a member of the Provincial Convention in 1775. In June following he was appointed

by the Continental Congress one of the eight brigadier-generals for the Continental army. Appointed second in command, under Schuyler, in the Northern Department, he became acting commander-in-chief because of his superior's protracted illness. He entered Canada early in September, with a considerable army, captured St. John, on the Sorel or Richelieu River, Nov. 3, took Montreal on the 13th, and pushed on towards Quebec, and stood before its walls with some troops under Arnold, Dec. 4. On the 9th the Continental Congress made him a major-general. He invested Quebec and continued the siege until Dec. 31, when he attempted to take the city by storm. In that effort he was slain by grape-shot from a masked battery, Dec. 31, 1775. His death was regarded as a great public calamity, and on the floor of the British Parliament he was eulogized by Burke, Chatham, and Barré. Even Lord North spoke of him as "brave, humane, and generous;" but added, "still he was only a brave, humane, and generous *rebel;* curse on his virtues, they've undone his



MONTGOMERY'S MONUMENT.

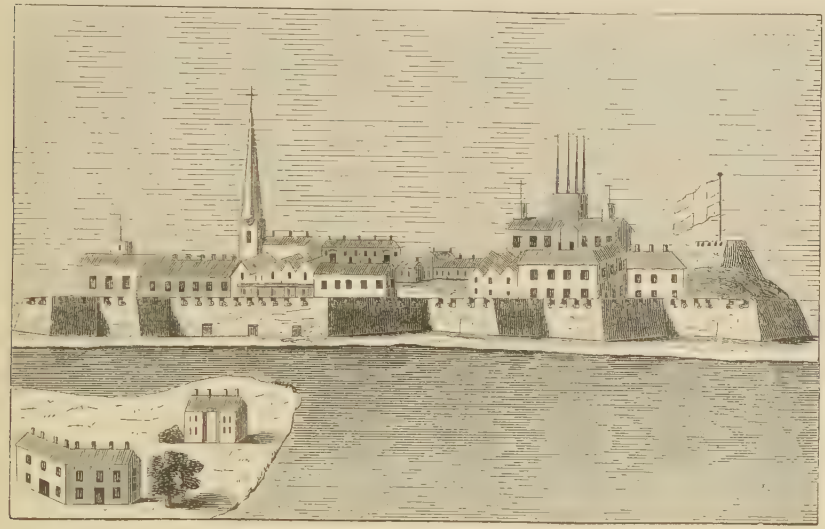
country." To this remark Fox retorted: "The term 'rebel' is no certain mark of disgrace. All the great assertors of liberty, the saviors of their country, the benefactors of mankind in all ages, have been called 'rebels.' We owe the constitution which enables us to sit in this House to a rebellion." Montgomery was buried at Quebec. In 1818 his remains were removed to the city of New York, at the expense of the State, and they were deposited near the monument which the United States government had erected to his memory in the front of St. Paul's Church, New York.

Montgomery, ALA., the first capital of the Confederate States in 1861.

Montgomery, FORT. See CLINTON, FORT.

Montreal, MASSACRE AT. On July 12, 1689, about 1,200 of the Five Nations (see IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY) invaded the island of Montreal, burned all the plantations, and murdered men, women, and children. This event threw the whole French colony into consternation. It was reported that 1,000 of the French were slain during the invasion, besides twenty-six carried into captivity and burned alive. It was this massacre that the French sought to avenge the next year, when Frontenac sent into the Mohawk country the mongrel party that destroyed Schenectady, and two others which attacked Salmon Falls and Casco, in Maine. Sir William Phipps having been successful in an expedition against Port Royal, Acadia, in 1690, a plan for the conquest of Canada was speedily arranged. A fleet under Phipps proceeded against Quebec, and colonial land forces were placed under the supreme command of Fitz-John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut. Milborne, son-in-law of Leisler, undertook, as commissary, to provide and forward subsistence for the march. Colonel Schuyler with a party of Mohawks, the van of the expedition, pushed forward towards the St. Lawrence, but was repulsed by Frontenac (August). The remainder of the troops did not proceed farther than Lake George, where they were stopped by a deficiency of provisions and the prevalence of the small-pox. Mutual recriminations followed, and Leisler actually caused Winthrop's arrest. The latter charged the failure to Milborne, who, it was alleged, had failed to furnish needed provisions and transportation. In 1711, within a fortnight after Colonel Nicholson had given notice

of an intended expedition against Canada, New York and the New England colonies were busy in preparations for the movement. Massachusetts issued bills of credit amounting to about $200,000 to guarantee bills drawn on the imperial treasury; New York issued bills to the amount of $50,000 to defray the expenses of her share of the enterprise; and Pennsylvania, under the name of a present 800 men he marched to the relief of the garrison at St. John, after he heard of the capture of Chambly. He crossed the St. Lawrence in small boats, and when about to land at Longueil was attacked by Col. Seth Warner and about 300 Green Mountain Boys, and driven back in great confusion. The news of this repulse caused the speedy surrender of St. John, when Montgomery pressed on towards Montreal.



VIEW OF MONTREAL AND ITS WALLS IN 1760 (From an old French print).

to the Queen, contributed $10,000 towards the expedition. About 1,800 troops—the quotas of Connecticut, New York, and New Jersey—assembled at Albany with the intention of attacking Montreal simultaneously with the appearance of the fleet from Boston before Quebec. Nicholson was in general command; and at Albany he was joined by 500 warriors of the Five Nations and 1,000 palatines, chiefly from the Mohawk Valley, making the whole force about 4,000 strong. Nicholson was assisted by Colonels Schuyler, Whiting, and Ingoldsby, and on Aug. 28 they began their march for Canada. At Lake George Nicholson heard of the miscarriage of the naval expedition, and returned to Albany, abandoning the enterprise.

In 1775, when the republicans invaded Canada, General Carleton was in command of a few troops at Montreal. With about Carleton, knowing the weakness of the fort, at once retreated on board a vessel of a small fleet lying in the river, and attempted to flee to Quebec with the garrison. Montgomery entered Montreal without opposition, and sent a force under Colonel Easton to intercept the intending fugitives. He hastened to the mouth of the Sorel with troops, cannon, and armed gondolas. The British fleet could not pass, and Prescott, several other officers, members of the Canadian Council, and 120 private soldiers, with all the vessels, were surrendered. Carleton escaped. Then Montgomery wrote to the Congress, "Until Quebec is taken Canada is unconquered." Leaving Wooster in command at Montreal, Montgomery then pushed on towards Quebec. See MONTGOMERY, RICHARD; QUEBEC.

Moody, DWIGHT LYMAN, evangelist;

born in Northfield, Mass., Feb. 5, 1837; was educated in the district schools of his neighborhood. When seventeen years old he went to Boston and became a clerk in a shoe-store. While there he was converted and united with the Mount Vernon Congregational Church. In 1856 he settled in Chicago and became greatly interested in Sunday-school mission work, building up a school of more than 1,000 pupils. He soon after entirely relinquished business, that he might devote all his time to Christian work. During the Civil War he was connected with the United States Christian Commission, and after the war he became general missionary of the Young Men's Christian Association in Chicago, and built a church for the use of his Sunday-school and the many converts of his ministry. In 1871 this church was destroyed in the great fire, but subsequently was rebuilt, and under the name of the Chicago Tabernacle supervises the great Chicago Training-School for foreign missionaries and lay Christian workers. In 1873, with Ira D. Sankey, his famous co-worker, who had joined him two years before, he visited Great Britain and began Christian work in York. This mission produced many good results, and the fame of it spread widely. Later he visited Sunderland, Newcastle-on-Tyne, and other places. From England he went to Edinburgh, and soon afterwards the whole of Scotland was aroused. Great meetings were held in Dundee, Glasgow, and other important cities. After visiting the chief cities of Ireland, where he met with similar success, he returned to England, and conducted great meetings in Manchester, Birmingham, and Liverpool. His greatest meetings of all were held in Agricultural Hall, London, where audiences of from 10,000 to 20,000 gathered. In November, 1875, enormous meetings were begun in Philadelphia, continuing for three months. Then, in turn, New York, Chicago, and Boston had similar religious awakenings. In the latter city a great tabernacle was built in 1877, at a cost of $40,000, and daily meetings were held for four months, with an average attendance of from 5,000 to 10,000. Like success attended Mr. Moody during his whole life, both in the United States and in Great Britain. In 1880 he erected the first public building of the now famous Northfield and Mount Hermon institutions. In 1900 the plant at Northfield was valued at about $1,000,000. It is estimated that Mr. Moody, during his ministry, addressed more than 50,000,000 people. He died in Northfield, Mass., Dec. 22, 1899.

Moody, WILLIAM HENRY, statesman; born in Newbury, Mass., Dec. 23, 1853; graduated from Harvard University in 1876; district attorney for eastern district of Massachusetts, 1890–95; member of the 54th, 55th, 56th, and 57th Congresses; Secretary of the Navy in 1902; Attorney-General, 1904.

Moody, WILLIAM REVELL, educator; born in Chicago, Ill., March 25, 1869; son of Dwight L. Moody; was graduated at Yale University in 1891; and since the death of his father has had charge of the Northfield schools. He is the author of *The Life of Dwight L. Moody* and the editor of *Record of Christian Work* since 1897.

Mooers, BENJAMIN, military officer; born in Haverhill, Mass., April 1, 1758; was in the Continental army; at the surrender of Burgoyne; and served as lieutenant in Hazen's regiment to the end of the war. In 1783 he settled in the wilderness on the western shore of Lake Champlain, near the present Plattsburg. He was eight years in the New York legislature, and, as major-general of militia, commanded that body of soldiers in the battle of PLATTSBURG (*q. v.*) in 1814. He died in Plattsburg, N. Y., Feb. 20, 1838.

Mooney, JAMES, ethnologist; born in Richmond, Ind., Feb. 10, 1861. When a boy he began studying Indian life and character, which became his life-work. He has conducted extended investigations among the Southern and Western Indian tribes; and prepared government exhibits for several expositions. He wrote *Sacred Formulas of the Cherokees; Siouan Tribes of the East; Calendar History of the Kiowa Indians; Myths of the Cherokees;* etc.

Moore, ALFRED, jurist; born in Brunswick county, N. C., May 21, 1755; served in the Revolutionary army throughout the war; elected attorney-general of North Carolina in 1792; appointed associate justice of the Supreme Court of the United States in 1799. He resigned in

1804, and died in Bladen county, N. C., Oct. 15, 1810.

Moore, Edwin Ward, naval officer; born in Alexandria, Va., in 1811; entered the United States navy in 1825; became lieutenant in 1835. After the Republic of Texas was founded he was chosen by its government to command its navy. Fitting out two small vessels as ships-of-war, he sailed from New Orleans early in 1843 to meet the Mexican fleet of ten vessels. During the unequal contest which ensued he defeated the enemy, causing them great loss. When Texas was annexed to the Union, Moore unsuccessfully sought reinstatement in the United States navy with the rank of commodore, which he had held in the Texas navy. In 1855, however, $17,000 was appropriated to him as "leave" pay during the interval between annexation and the passage of the bill. He died in New York City, Oct. 5, 1865.

Moore, Eliakim Hastings, educator; born in Marietta, O., Jan. 26, 1862; was graduated at Yale University in 1883; was an instructor in mathematics there in 1887–89; assistant professor of the same branch in the Northwestern University in 1889–91; and associate professor in the latter institution in 1891–92. In 1892 he accepted the chair of mathematics in the University of Chicago, where subsequently he was made head professor of that branch. He holds membership in the American Mathematical Society, the Circolo Mathematico di Palermo, Deutsche Mathematiker-Vereinigung, and the London Mathematical Society. He is contributor to American and European mathematical periodicals.

Moore, Frank, editor; born in Concord, N. H., Dec. 17, 1828; was assistant secretary of the United States legation in Paris in 1869–72, and later engaged in journalism in New York. He is the editor of *Songs and Ballads of the American Revolution; Cyclopædia of American Eloquence; Diary of the American Revolution; Materials for History; The Rebellion Record; Speeches of Andrew Johnson, with a Biographical Introduction; Life and Speeches of John Bright; Women of the War, 1861–66; Songs and Ballads of the Southern People, 1861–65,* etc.

Moore, George Henry, librarian; born in Concord, N. H., April 20, 1823; graduated at the University of New York in 1843; made librarian of the New York Historical Society in 1849; became superintendent and a trustee of the Lenox Library in 1872. His publications include *The Treason of Charles Lee; Employment of Negroes in the Revolutionary Army; Notes on the History of Slavery in Massachusetts; History of Jurisprudence of New York; Witchcraft in Massachusetts,* etc. He died in New York City, May 5, 1897.

Moore, Sir Henry, colonial governor; born in Jamaica, West Indies, in 1713; was made governor of that island in 1756; and for his services in suppressing a slave insurrection there was rewarded with the title of baronet. He was appointed governor of New York in 1764; arrived in November, 1765, in the midst of the Stamp Act excitement; and held the office until his death, Sept. 11, 1769.

Moore, Jacob Bailey, author; born in Andover, N. H., Oct. 31, 1797; learned the printer's trade in Concord, N. H.; married a sister of Isaac Hill, proprietor of the *New Hampshire Patriot;* became his business partner; and afterwards established the *New Hampshire Statesman.* He was a member of the State legislature in 1828. He and Mr. Farmer published, from 1822 to 1824, three volumes of *Historical Collections of New Hampshire,* of great value; and this was one of the first publications in this country devoted to local history. He pursued journalism in New York (whither he went in 1839) for a while, when he was appointed to a place in the general post-office; and from 1845 to 1848 he was librarian of the New York Historical Society. Mr. Moore was the first postmaster in California, serving in San Francisco from 1848 to 1852. He died in Bellows Falls, Vt., Sept. 1, 1853.

Moore, John, military surgeon; born in Indiana, Aug. 16, 1826; entered the army as assistant surgeon in June, 1853; served in the Cincinnati Marine Hospital in 1861–62; promoted surgeon and appointed medical director of the Central Grand Division of the Army of the Potomac in June, 1862; and became medical director of the Department and Army of the Tennessee in 1863. He was with Sherman in the Atlanta campaign. In 1883–86 he was assistant medical purveyor, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel; in 1886–90

was surgeon-general of the army with the rank of brigadier-general; and in the latter year was retired.

Moore, JOHN BASSETT, author; born in Smyrna, Del., Dec. 3, 1860; was educated at the University of Virginia, and admitted to the bar of Delaware in 1883. In 1885 he was appointed law clerk in the State Department in Washington, D. C., and in the following year became third assistant Secretary of State. In 1891 he resigned this office to accept the chair of International Law and Diplomacy in Columbia University. In April, 1898, he was recalled to the United States Department of State, and in September became secretary and counsel to the American Peace Commissioners in Paris. He is author of *Extradition and Interstate Rendition; American Notes on the Conflict of Laws; History and Digest of International Arbitrations*, etc., and one of the editors of the *Political Science Quarterly*, and of the *Journal du Droit International Privé*. See Professor Moore's article on the ALASKAN BOUNDARY, in vol. i., p. 81.

JOHN BASSETT MOORE.

Moorehead, WARREN KING, archæologist; born in Siena, Italy, of American parents, March 10, 1866; received a liberal education, and applied himself to archæological study in Licking county, O. Later he studied with D. Thomas Wilson, curate of Prehistoric Anthropology in the Smithsonian Institution, in Washington, D. C. He had charge of archæological work in the Ohio Valley, Utah, Colorado, and New Mexico, for the World's Columbian Exposition, and while so engaged made important discoveries in the altar mounds of the Scioto Valley. In 1898 he was engaged in explorations in the West. He is a member of the Victoria Institute of England, and a fellow of the Association for the Advancement of Science. His publications include *Primitive Man in Ohio; Fort Ancient; Wanneta, the Sioux*, and many reports.

Moore's Creek Bridge, BATTLE AT. In January, 1776, Sir Henry Clinton sailed from Boston on a secret mission. Suspecting his destination to be New York, Washington sent General Lee thither. His presence probably deterred Clinton from landing, after a conference with Governor Tryon, and he proceeded to the coast of North Carolina to assist Governor Martin in the recovery of his power in that province. Martin, aware of his approach, and anticipating an armament from Ireland, kept up a continual intercourse from his "floating palace" on the Cape Fear with the Scotch Highlanders (who had settled in large numbers in that province) and other Tories. He commissioned Donald McDonald brigadier-general. He was a veteran who had fought for the Young Pretender at the battle of Culloden (1746). Under him, as captain, was Allan McDonald. These two men had great influence over the Scotch Highlanders. They enlisted for the royal cause about 1,500 men, and marched from the vicinity of Fayetteville for the coast to join the governor and his friends on the Cape Fear. Col. James Moore, on hearing of this movement, marched with more than 1,000 men to intercept McDonald. At the same time minute-men of the Neuse region, under Colonels Caswell and Lillington, were gathering to oppose the loyalists, and on the evening of Feb. 26 were encamped at a bridge near the mouth of Moore's Creek, in Hanover county. There McDonald, chased by Colonel Moore, came upon the minute-men. He was sick, and the force was commanded by Lieutenant-

Colonel McLeod. A sharp battle ensued the next morning, when McLeod was killed. The Scotchmen were routed and dispersed, and about 850 of them were made prisoners, among them the two McDonalds. The loyalists lost seventy men, killed and wounded. The republicans had only two wounded, one mortally.

Mora, ANTONIO MAXIMO, claimant; born in Cuba in 1818; inherited large sugar plantations near Havana; declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States in New York City in 1853; and after the beginning of the Cuban revolution in 1868 was accused of aiding the insurgents. His property, valued at $3,000,000, was seized by the Spanish government (1869), and he was arrested, imprisoned, and in 1870 was sentenced to death. He, however, escaped to the United States, where he laid his case before Hamilton Fish, then Secretary of State, at the same time declaring that he had in no way aided the insurgents. The United States immediately opened a diplomatic correspondence with Spain in regard to the matter. In September, 1873, Spain relinquished all claims against American property in Cuba, excepting the Mora plantation. An agreement was made that claims for damages by *de facto* American citizens should be placed before an international committee. Accordingly the claim of Mora was submitted to such a committee, which decided against him. The case was again brought up in 1883, and Spain was requested to restore the embargoed estates to Mora. It was not, however, until Sept. 14, 1895, that Spain paid the amount of the adjudicated damage to Mora ($1,449,000) to the United States for him. In this contest, which had been carried on for twenty-five years, Mr. Mora had been under great expense, so that he realized only $994,509 out of the amount awarded him. He died in New York City, April 24, 1897.

Moran, THOMAS, artist; born in Bolton, Lancashire, England, Jan. 12, 1837; came to the United States when seven years old, and was educated in the public schools of Philadelphia, Pa. Subsequently he studied art under James Hamilton and afterwards in Paris and Italy. He became distinguished as a landscape painter and illustrator. In 1871 he went with the United States Exploring Expedition to the region of the Yellowstone, and in 1873 made a second journey thither, his sketches resulting in the famous paintings *The Mountain of the Holy Cross; Grand Cañon of the Yellowstone;* and *Chasm of the Colorado.* The two last paintings were purchased by Congress and placed in the Capitol. His other paintings include *The Last Arrow; The Ripening of the Leaf; Dreamland; The Groves were God's First Temples; The Pictured Rocks of Lake Superior; The Flight into Egypt; The Remorse of Cain; The Track of the Storm,* etc.

Moravian Town, a settlement in Kent county, Ontario, Canada, on the bank of the River Thames, near which General Harrison defeated General Proctor in battle on Oct. 5, 1813. The settlers were Indians who had been converted to Christianity by the Moravians, who fled to Canada from the Muskingum, in Ohio, in 1792. By an order of the Provincial Council in 1793, about 50,000 acres of land were granted for their use, on which they proceeded to build a church and a village. Rev. John Scott, of Bethlehem, ministered there for some time. At the time of the battle this Christian Indian village had about 100 houses, mostly well built, a schoolhouse and chapel, and very fine gardens.

Moravians. The church of evangelical Christians known as Moravians, or United Brethren, has a most remarkable history. Its germs appear as early as the ninth century, when Christianity was introduced into Bohemia and Moravia; but it does not appear distinct in history until 1457, when a separate church was formed. The members of that church always manifested the spirit afterwards called Protestantism, and, like the primitive church, held the Bible to be the only rule of faith and practice. They have an episcopacy, and the episcopal succession from 1457 to 1874 embraced 174 bishops. Their episcopate is not diocesan, but their bishops are bishops of the whole United Brethren. When, in 1621, Ferdinand II. of Austria began the persecution of Protestants, 50,000 of his subjects emigrated to other lands. The church in Bohemia and Moravia was almost extinguished, and its faith—a hidden seed—was preserved by a few families for 100 years, when

it was renewed with strength. In 1722 two Moravian families found a refuge on the estate of Count Zinzendorf, of Saxony, then an officer in the Saxon Court, and a lover of pure and simple worship. In five years 300 Moravians gathered there. Zinzendorf became a bishop, and afterwards he spent his life and fortune in missionary work.

Churches were established on the Continent, in Great Britain, and in North America; and in 1749 the British Parliament passed acts to encourage their settlement in the English-American colonies. The trustees of Georgia granted 500 acres of land to Count Zinzendorf for the purpose, and also gave Bishop Spangenberg 150 acres embraced in a part of the site of Savannah. A number of Moravians settled in Georgia in 1735. Others followed the next year, led by Bishop David Nitschmann; and on Feb. 28, 1736, the first Moravian church in America was organized, under the pastorship of Anthony Seifferth, who was ordained in the presence of John Wesley. In Georgia their labors were mostly among the Indians and negroes. As they could not conscientiously take up arms to defend Georgia against the Spaniards at St. Augustine, they abandoned their settlement and went to Pennsylvania with Whitefield. Bishops Nitschmann and Spangenberg returned to Europe. Whitefield had purchased lands at the forks of the Delaware, and invited the Moravians to settle upon them; but doctrinal differences produced a rupture between them and Whitefield, and he ordered them to leave his domain forthwith (see WHITEFIELD, GEORGE).

Bishop Nitschmann came back, and founded a settlement on the Lehigh, the first house being completed in 1741. When, on Christmas day, Count Zinzendorf visited the settlement, he called it "Bethlehem." That is the mother-church in America. Their labors among the Indians were extended far and wide, and their principal station in the West was at Gnadenhütten—"tents of grace"—in Ohio, where many Indian converts were gathered, and where nearly 100 of them were massacred by white people in March, 1782, under the false impression that they were British spies or were concerned in some Indian outrages in Pennsylvania. The first Indian congregation gathered by the Moravians was in the town of Pine Plains, Dutchess co., N. Y., at a place called Shekom-e-ko. A mission was established there by Christian Henry Rauch in August, 1740. The next year a sickly young German from Bethlehem, named Gottlob Büttner, joined Rauch in his work. He preached fervently, and many converts were the fruits of the mission of Rauch and Büttner. Count Zinzendorf and his daughter visited the mission in 1742. Here Büttner died in 1745, and over his grave the Moravians placed a handsome monument in 1859. In 1745 the mission was broken up.

The Moravian Church is divided into three provinces — namely, Continental, British, and American. The American province is divided into two districts—Northern and Southern—the respective centres being in Bethlehem, Northampton co., Pa., and Salem, Forsyth co., N. C. There were in 1904, in the American province, 115 churches, 127 ministers, and 16,095 communicants. There are several church boarding-schools; and, at Bethlehem, a college and theological seminary. At first the social and political exclusiveness of the Moravians prevented a rapid increase in their numbers; but latterly there have been great changes in this respect, as well as in the constitution of the church, whose grand centre is at Herrnhütt, in Saxony, the village built on Count Zinzendorf's estate. The Moravians use a liturgy, and their ritual is similar to that of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

Mordecai, ALFRED, military officer; born in Warrenton, N. C., Jan. 3, 1804; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1823; promoted captain of ordnance in 1832; became a member of the ordnance board in 1839; was appointed assistant inspector of arsenals in 1842; and resigned from the army May 5, 1861. His publications include *Digest of Military Laws; Ordnance Manual for the Use of Officers in the United States Army; Reports of Experiments on Gunpowder;* and *Artillery for the United States Land Service, as Devised and Arranged by the Ordnance Board.* He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 23, 1887.

Morey Letter. During the Presiden-

tial campaign of 1880 a letter on the Chinese question, purporting to have been written by the Republican nominee, General Garfield, to H. L. Morey, of Lynn, Mass., was published. It asserted that individuals as well as companies have the right to buy labor where it is cheapest, etc. This letter appeared in New York, and was circulated by Democratic journals. Garfield at once declared the letter a forgery.

Morgan, ANNE EUGENIA FELICIA, educator; born in Oberlin, O., Oct. 3, 1845; was graduated at Oberlin College in 1866; studied philosophy in Germany in 1872–74; and, returning to the United States, was instructor of languages at Oberlin College in 1875–76, and instructor of Greek and Latin in Vassar in 1877–78. In the latter year she became Professor of Philosophy in Wellesley College. In 1897 she invented a game called "Bellecycle," which in order to play requires a practical application of experimental psychology. Her publications include *Scripture Studies on the Origin and Destiny of Man;* and *The White Lady*, a plan for the study of comparative literature.

Morgan, DANIEL, military officer; born in Hunterdon county, N. J., in 1736; at the age of seventeen he was a wagoner in Braddock's army, and the next year he received 500 lashes for knocking down a British lieutenant who had insulted him.

DANIEL MORGAN.

That officer afterwards made a public apology. Morgan became an ensign in the militia in 1758; and while carrying despatches he was severely wounded by Indians, but escaped. After the French and Indian War he was a brawler and fighter and a dissipated gambler for a time; but he reformed, accumulated property, and commanded a company in Dunmore's expedition against the Indians in 1774. In less than a week after he heard of the affair at Lexington he had enrolled ninety-six men, the nucleus of his famous rifle-corps, and marched them to Boston. He accompanied Arnold in his march to Quebec in 1775, commanding three companies of riflemen, and in the siege of that city was made prisoner. As colonel of a rifle regiment, he bore a conspicuous part in the capture of Burgoyne and his army in 1777. After serving in Pennsylvania, he joined the remnant of the defeated army of Gates at Hillsboro, N. C.; and on Oct. 1 was placed in command of a legionary corps, with the rank of brigadier-general. He served under Greene; gained a victory in battle at the Cowpens (for which Congress gave him thanks and a gold medal); and was in Greene's retreat. He led troops that suppressed the Whiskey Insurrection, and was a member of Congress from 1795 to 1799. He died in Winchester, Va., July 6, 1802.

Morgan, EDWIN DENNISON, "war governor"; born in Washington, Berkshire co., Mass., Feb. 8, 1811; at the age of seventeen years became a clerk in a grocery store in Hartford, Conn.; and at twenty was a partner in the business. He was active, industrious, and enterprising; and six years later (1836) removed to New York, where he became a very successful merchant and amassed a large fortune. Mr. Morgan took an active interest in the political movements of his time, and in 1849 was elected to a seat in the New York Senate, which he occupied until 1853. The Republican party had no more efficient and wise adviser and worker than Mr. Morgan, and he was made chairman of its New York State Committee. In 1859 he was elected governor of New York, and in 1861 was re-elected. Governor Morgan was one of the most energetic of the "war governors." During the Civil War, his brain,

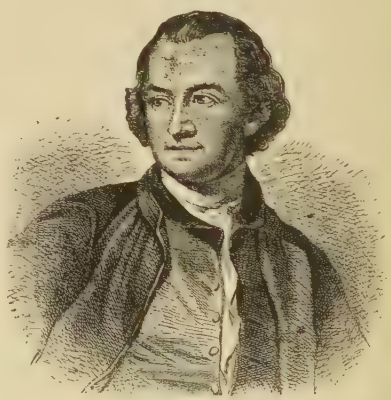
his hand, and his fortune were at the service of his country. His administration was marked by a great decrease in the public debt of the State and an increase in the revenue from the canals. Such impetus did his zeal, patriotism, and energy give to the business of raising troops for the war that the State sent about 220,000 men to the field. From 1863 to 1869 Mr. Morgan was United States Senator, and then retired from public life. In 1867 Williams College conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D. He died in New York City, Feb. 14, 1883.

EDWIN DENNISON MORGAN.

Morgan, GEORGE WASHINGTON, military officer; born in Washington county, Pa., Sept. 20, 1820. He was captain in the Texan war for independence; studied two years at West Point, 1841–43; and began the practice of law in Ohio in 1845. In the war against Mexico he became colonel of the 2d Ohio Volunteers, and for his gallantry won the brevet of brigadier-general. From 1856 to 1858 he was consul at Marseilles; 1858 to 1861 was minister resident at Lisbon, and in November of the latter year was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He was in command of a division in the Army of the Ohio in 1862. He served under Rosecrans, and commanded a division under Sherman at Vicksburg in 1863. That year he resigned. He was a member of Congress from 1868 to 1872. He died in Fort Monroe, July 27, 1895.

Morgan, JAMES DADY, military officer; born in Boston, Mass., Aug. 1, 1810; was in mercantile business in Quincy, Ill., when the war against Mexico began, and was captain of a company in the 1st Illinois Volunteers in that war. In 1861 he was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the 10th Illinois Regiment, and was promoted brigadier-general in July, 1862. He commanded a brigade at Nashville late in that year, and was in command of a division in the 14th Corps in Sherman's Atlanta campaign. In 1885 he was brevetted major-general of volunteers. He died in Quincy, Ill., Sept. 12, 1896.

Morgan, JOHN, physician; born in Philadelphia, Pa., in 1735; graduated at the Philadelphia College in 1757; studied medicine; and served as a surgeon of Pennsylvania troops in the French and Indian War, after which he went to England. He attended the lectures of the celebrated Dr. Hunter; and after spending two years in Edinburgh, and receiving the degree of M.D.; he travelled on the Continent. On his return to London (1765) he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, also of the College of Physicians in Edinburgh and London. Returning to Philadelphia the same year, he was elected to a professorship in the College of Philadelphia, in which he founded a medical school. When the treason of Church was discovered, Dr. Morgan was appointed, by the Continental Congress (Oct. 17, 1775), director-general of the Army General



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Hospital, in which capacity he served until 1777. Dr. Morgan was one of the founders of the American Philosophical Society. He died in Philadelphia, Oct. 15, 1789.

Morgan, JOHN HUNT, military officer; born in Huntsville, Ala., June 1, 1826; killed at Greenville, Tenn., Sept. 4, 1864. Settled near Lexington, Ky., in 1830, with his parents; served under Taylor in the

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war with Mexico; and in 1861, at the head of the Lexington Rifles, he joined Buckner of the Kentucky State Guard. At the battle of Shiloh he commanded a squadron of Confederate cavalry, and soon afterwards began his career as a raider. His first noted exploit was his invasion of Kentucky from eastern Tennessee (July, 1861), with 1,200 men, under a conviction that vast numbers of young men would flock to his standard and he would become the "liberator" of that commonwealth. Dispersing a small National force at Tompkinsville, Monroe co., he issued a flaming proclamation to the people of Kentucky. He was preparing the way for Bragg's invasion of that State. Soon recruits joined Morgan, and he roamed about the State, plundering and destroying. At Lebanon he fought a Union force, routed them, and took several prisoners. His raid was so rapid that it created intense excitement. Louisville was alarmed. He pressed on towards the Ohio, destroying a long railway bridge (July 14) between Cynthiana and Paris, and laying waste a railway track. On July 17 he had a sharp fight with the Home Guards at Cynthiana, who were dispersed. He hoped to plunder the rich city of Cincinnati. His approach inspired the inhabitants with terror; but a pursuing cavalry force under Green Clay Smith, of Kentucky, caused him to retreat southward in the direction of Richmond. On his retreat his raiders stole horses and robbed stores without inquiring whether the property belonged to friend or foe.

In June and July, 1863, he crossed the Ohio River for the purpose of plunder for himself and followers; to prepare the way for Buckner to dash into Kentucky from Tennessee and seize Louisville and, with Morgan, to capture Cincinnati; to form the nucleus of an armed counter-revolution in the Northwest, where the "Knights of the Golden Circle," or the "Sons of Liberty" of the peace faction, were numerous; and to prevent reinforcements from being sent to Meade from that region. Already about eighty Kentuckians had crossed the Ohio (June 19) into Indiana to test the temper of the people. They were captured. Morgan started (June 27) with 3,500 well-mounted men and six guns, crossing the Cumberland River at Burkesville, and, pushing on, encountered some loyal cavalry at Columbia (July 3), fought them three hours, partly sacked the town, and proceeded to destroy a bridge over the Green River, when he was driven away, after a desperate fight of several hours, by 200 Michigan troops under Colonel Moore, well intrenched. Morgan lost 250 killed and wounded; Moore lost twenty-nine. He rushed into Lebanon, captured a small Union force there, set fire to the place, and lost his brother—killed in the fight. He reached the Ohio, 40 miles below Louisville, July 7. His ranks were swelled as he went plundering through Kentucky, and he crossed the Ohio with 4,000 men and ten guns. He captured two steamers, with which he crossed. He was closely pursued by some troops under General Hobson, and others went up the Ohio in steamboats to intercept him. He plundered Corydon, Ind., murdered citizens, and stole 300 horses. On he went, robbing mill and factory owners by demanding $1,000

as a condition for the safety of their property. In like manner he went from village to village until the 12th, when, at a railway near Vernon, he encountered Colonel Lowe with 1,200 militiamen. Morgan was now assured that Indiana was aroused, and that there was a great uprising of the loyal people against him. The victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg now inspirited the people. Governor Morton called on the citizens to turn out and expel the invaders. Within forty-eight hours 65,000 citizens had tendered their services, and were hastening towards the rendezvous. Morgan was alarmed. He stole fresh horses for the race before Hobson, his persistent pursuer. He passed swiftly north of Cincinnati through the southern counties, and struck the river a little above Pomeroy. The people of Ohio, also, were aroused. General Judah went up the Ohio, from Cincinnati, in steamboats, to head him off; and the people were gathering from different points. At Buffington Ford he attempted to cross the river and escape into Virginia; but there the head of Hobson's column, under General Shackleford, struck his rear, General Judah struck his flank, and two armed vessels in the stream opened upon his front. Hemmed in, about 800 of his men surrendered, and the remainder, leaving all their plunder behind them, followed their leader up the river, and again attempted to cross to Belleville by swimming their horses. About 300 crossed, but the remainder were driven back by a gunboat, when Morgan fled inland to McArthur, fighting militia, burning bridges, and plundering. At last he was obliged to surrender to General Shackleford, July 26, 1863, at New Lisbon, the capital of Columbiana county. Morgan and some of his officers were confined in the Ohio penitentiary at Columbus, from which he and six of them escaped in November, and joined the Confederate forces in northern Georgia. The race between the troops of Morgan and his pursuers had continued three weeks, without cessation, at the rate of 35 miles a day. Morgan afterwards received an ovation at Richmond as a great hero.

When Longstreet left Knoxville, Tenn., late in 1863, he lingered awhile between there and the Virginia border. He had been pursued by cavalry, and near Bean's Station he had a sharp skirmish (Dec. 14), when the Nationals were pushed back with a loss of 200 men; Longstreet's loss was greater. Longstreet finally retired to Virginia, leaving Morgan in eastern Tennessee. Gen. John G. Foster was there, in command of the Army of the Ohio; and on Dec. 29 Gen. S. D. Sturgis, with the National advance at Knoxville, between Mossy Creek and New Market, met and fought Morgan and Armstrong, who led about 6,000 Confederates. The latter were defeated. On Jan. 16, 1864, Sturgis was attacked by Morgan and Armstrong at Dandridge, the capital of Jefferson county. After a severe encounter, Sturgis fell back to Strawberry Plains, where his soldiers suffered intensely from the extreme cold. Morgan lingered in eastern Tennessee until May, and late in that month, with comparatively few followers, he went over the mountains into Kentucky, and raided rapidly through the eastern counties of that State, plundering as they sped on in the richest part of that commonwealth. They captured several small places, dashed into Lexington, burning the railway station and other property there, and hurried towards Frankfort. General Burbridge, who, when he heard of Morgan's passage of the mountains, had started in pursuit, struck him a severe blow near Cynthiana, by which 300 of the raiders were killed or wounded, 400 made prisoners, and 1,000 horses captured. Burbridge lost about 150 men. This staggering blow made Morgan reel back into eastern Tennessee. Early in September he was at Greenville with his shattered brigade. Morgan and his staff were at the house of Mrs. Williams in that town, when it was surrounded by troops under General Gillem, and Morgan, attempting to escape, was shot dead in the garden, Sept. 4, 1864.

Morgan, John Pierpont, capitalist; born in Hartford, Conn., April 17, 1837; son of Junius Spencer Morgan (born April 14, 1813; died April 8, 1890); was educated in the English High School of Boston, and at the University of Göttingen, Germany. Returning to the United States in 1857 he entered the banking-house of Duncan, Sherman & Co., and in 1860 became American agent of the London house of George Peabody & Co. In 1871 he became a partner in the firm of Drexel,

Morgan & Co., which later became J. Pierpont Morgan & Co. Mr. Morgan's firm has been conspicuous for many years in the reorganization of large industrial and railroad interests, and as syndicate managers. In 1895 the firm agreed to supply the United States government with 3,500,000 ounces of standard gold coin at the rate of $17.80 per ounce, for thirty-year 4-per-cent. bonds, and later in the year, when the financial situation again became alarming, the firm organized a syndicate which took $37,911,350 of a new government loan. The greatest achievement of the firm, and the largest financial enterprise ever undertaken by a single individual, was consummated in April, 1901, when an amended certificate of incorporation of the newly formed United States Steel Corporation was filed in Trenton, N. J. This combination represented a merging of the Carnegie Steel Works and a number of the other great steel concerns of the country, with a capital stock of $1,100,000,000, and a working cash capital of $200,000,000. Mr. Morgan has long been noted for his active and large benevolence. His gifts include $500,000 to the New York Trade Schools, in 1892; $1,000,000 to erect a new building for the Lying-In Hospital, in 1897; an additional $350,000 to the same institution, in 1899; a rare collection of ancient Greek ornaments valued at $150,000 to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, in 1900; the finest collection of minerals in the United States, valued at $200,000, to the Museum of Art; $100,000 to the Young Men's Christian Association of New York City; and an electric-lighting plant, valued at $40,000, to the Loomis Sanitarium in Liberty, N. Y., in 1901.

Morgan, JOHN TYLER, statesman; born in Athens, Tenn., June 20, 1824; removed to Alabama when nine years of age; received an academic education; was admitted to the bar in 1845; and practised till the beginning of the Civil War, when he entered the Confederate Army as a private. Subsequently he raised the 5th Alabama Regiment, became its colonel, and was commissioned a brigadier-general in 1863. After the war he resumed practice at Selma, Ala. In 1876 he was elected to the United States Senate, and in 1882, 1888, 1894, and 1900 was re-elected. In 1892 President Harrison appointed him one of the American arbitrators in the Bering Sea Court of Arbitration, and in 1898, after the passage of the Hawaiian annexation bill, President McKinley appointed him one of the commissioners to prepare a system of government for the

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islands. For several years Senator Morgan has been especially conspicuous because of his forceful advocacy of the construction of an interoceanic canal on the Nicaraguan route by the United States. As chairman of the Senate Committee on Interoceanic Canals, he early demanded the abrogation of the CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY (*q. v.*), contending that the canal should be wholly an American enterprise; and after Great Britain rejected (March, 1901) the amended Hay-Pauncefote treaty, he urged that the United States should ignore the objectionable features of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and proceed with the construction of the canal without further negotiation with Great Britain.

The Nicaragua Canal.—The following is Senator Morgan's argument in favor of extending the aid of the federal government to the construction of the Nicaragua Canal:

In the testimony of Count Ferdinand de Lesseps, given before the select com-

mittee of the House of Representatives, March 8, 1880 (Mis. Doc. No. 16, Forty-fourth Congress, third session), he said: "There were fourteen projects of canals presented at the Paris congress, but the interest had entirely centred in the Nicaragua and Panama routes. . . . If it were determined to build a lock canal, and if there could not be a canal between the two oceans, except a lock canal, then there was no doubt that the Nicaragua route was the best route."

The Panama Canal Company, after years of exhaustive effort, and the expenditure of immense sums of money of the French people, demonstrated the fact that no other than a lock canal can be built and maintained across the Isthmus of Darien at any cost that the commerce of the world would be able to bear, as the basis of toll charges.

The abandonment of the effort to change the plan of the Panama Canal from a sea-level waterway to a canal with locks (for the amount of water at the highest level has settled that problem as being beyond the reach of successful solution) has verified the assurances of Mr. Menocal and Admiral Ammen, given to the congress at Paris, that the work was impracticable.

If the canal was built with locks and if it could be supplied with water by steam pumping, according to the last desperate alternative suggested by the company's engineers when the sea-level plan was abandoned, the future use of the canal would be embarrassed with the other insurmountable difficulties thus graphically presented by Mr. Eads in his testimony before the House select committee, on the same hearing (Mis. Doc. 10). Mr. Eads says:

> "Any one who contemplates the depth of the proposed cut through the several miles of the Cordillieras, and thinks of the frightful rains and tempests which prevail during six months of the year, can form some faint conception, perhaps, of the amount of material which would be washed down the side of this immense cut, as well as from all other parts of the canal, and which must be continually dredged out of it to preserve its usefulness."

Other statements equally worthy of credit show that no work in that locality could be maintained against the destructive floods which would suddenly rush through, what Mr. Eads describes as, "the narrow and tortuous stream which Count de Lesseps proposes to locate at the bottom of an artificial cañon to be cut through the Cordilleras at Panama.

These facts, and the opinions of many great engineers, eliminate all other canal projects from the necessity of further discussion, and leave us to consider alone the political and financial questions presented in the project of the Nicaraguan Canal, under the present concessions from Nicaragua and Costa Rica.

Those concessions are grants of rights, privileges, and property to individuals, and through them to a corporation chartered in the United States. They have been complied with by that corporation, as to all the preliminary conditions, and have been confirmed as permanent grants by the governments of Nicaragua and Costa Rica.

In making these exclusive concessions these governments announce to the world a plan for the change of geographical conditions, in which all civilized nations have an interest, and, accordingly, they have so planned the canal and regulated its control as to give equal advantages without discrimination to the ships and commerce of all nations.

In this sense the concessions were a political convenant with mankind and, in this sense, it is obvious that "government aid" has, so far, supplied every element of the progress of the work. The canal is the creature, alone, of "government aid." Without discussing the right of every maritime power, other than the United States, to claim that these concessions confer upon them privileges that they may insist shall not be withdrawn, to their detriment, it is clear that the concessions distinctly relate to the political right of the United States to have an influential part in the project of changing the geography of the Western Hemisphere. It is provided in the concessions that "a company of execution" shall be formed, having its place of business in New York. A great corporation was contemplated which should own the concessions granted to American citizens, and that it should be subject to the laws of organization. control and administration to be enacted

in the United States and enforced by like authority. All governments, and through them their people, are invited to become stockholders in the company styled in the concessions "The Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua."

Nicaragua and Costa Rica are stockholders in the company and may vote for directors, and, through them, take part in all the doings of the directors. They are bound thereby to the full extent that is included in the grants and limitations of the concessions, as completely as the other stockholders are bound. They provide expressly for the ownership of stock in the canal company by other governments, giving a preference to other American states in the right to subscribe for the stock. The corporation, therefore, is not only to be a public corporation, but international, and is to have governments, as its stockholders, that are to vote in the direction of the affairs of the company, including the governments that made the grants.

This is, necessarily, a very peculiar political situation, in connection with a geographical situation, and its attendant necessities, that exists nowhere else in the world. It presents opportunities, rights, and duties to the consideration and determination of the United States that are universally recognized as entitling us to a powerful, if not a dominant, influence in everything relating to the canal and its uses. The duties thus resting with us are well defined in the message of President Hayes, where he said that "this must be an American canal, under American control."

The concessions made by Nicaragua and Costa Rica are in line with this declaration, and make it even more specific by the opportunity given to the United States to build the canal and make it subject to our control. When this new attitude had been sedately taken by those governments and was formulated in concessions to citizens of the United States—not less solemn, or obligatory, than formal treaties—Congress met the overture by granting a charter to "The Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua," to be the "company of execution" provided for in the concession. Here was the concurrent "aid" of three governments to the canal. These three republics lent their sovereign powers in aid of this benefaction to mankind, without considering the question of its cost, or its value as an investment, and without the least thought that they could help a few favorites to grow rich; or the least apprehension that, while they were all looking on at the dealings of the company of execution, and were represented in the company, any fraud or corruption could scandalize their great and patriotic work.

Congress accepted these concessions as the basis of its action, as was contemplated in their provisions, and conformed its legislation to the pledges of good faith towards our citizens in securing them the enjoyment and protection of their rights and privileges therein granted.

This was governmental control over the canal in accordance with the concessions, and Congress reserved the right to alter, amend, or repeal the charter, according to its pleasure. Congress also required the president and secretary of the canal company to make reports, under oath, from time to time, to the Secretary of the Interior, "giving such detailed statement of its officers and of its assets and liabilities as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Interior, and any wilfully false statement so made shall be deemed perjury and punishable as such." Congress fixed the number of directors of the canal company and the manner of their election, the amount of the capital stock to be issued, and required that a majority of the board of directors shall be citizens and residents of the United States.

In these and other provisions of the charter, quite as important, Congress exercised legislative jurisdiction and political power over the corporation as full and complete as if this had been a domestic corporation. This, also, was "government aid" to the canal, strictly responsive to the action taken by Costa Rica and Nicaragua. It was aid without which the canal would not have been built or controlled by American citizens.

After Congress had taken this line of action and had thus created international obligations with two sister republics, and had assumed the duty of framing laws for creating and controlling "the company of execution," provided for in these con-

cessions, for the benefit of all commercial countries, we had thereby established very intimate governmental relations with this canal and its public and private promoters.

So intimate are these relations and so necessary to the preservation of the commerce, business interests, and the social and political communication of our Eastern and Western States and people, and to the practical continuity of our coast line, and the safety of our country, that we may say that the United States has adopted the Nicaragua Canal as an instrumentality of government; not a means of governing Nicaragua and Costa Rica, or any foreign people or power, but as a means necessary to the better government of our own country.

To us this canal is as much a means of government as it is to those republics; its distance from our possessions being the only real difference. It equally removes the barrier to water communication between the two oceans for the benefit of each of the three republics, which is measured by twice the length of South America, and which is made extremely perilous by the dangerous navigation of the cold and turbulent seas of the Antarctic regions.

Following this result, this canal opens an easy and short route for the transit of the mails, for the passage of troops, and of ships of war and of commerce, and lessens the cost of naval armaments to all American states by about one-half. In the interest of the peace of the world, this is a blessing of incalculable value. There is no light in which this project can be viewed that does not disclose the practical necessity of this canal as an instrument of better government and a facility of actual government to the people, States, and federal government of the United States.

No nation has the right, in view of the concessions made by Nicaragua and Costa Rica to our citizens, and of our legislation to aid and perfect those rights, to say to us that we shall not proceed to aid the canal by a subvention, or in any other way that is consistent with the sovereignty of Nicaragua and Costa Rica over their own domain.

Any other nation may as well demand of us the repeal of the charter granted by Congress to the canal company, as to say that we shall not make that legislation effectual by giving material aid to the building of the canal, and secure our government against loss. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, our treaty with Nicaragua, concluded Aug. 21, 1867, and her treaty of Feb. 11, 1860, with Great Britain, upon which our treaty was modelled, all look to and provide for this canal and for material aid to it. They only exclude the right of either power from acquiring sovereign rights in Nicaragua. If British subjects now held the concessions that are owned by our people, and if Parliament should charter a "company of execution," and grant it a subsidy or any form of aid, we should have nothing to interpose, in the way of logical argument, to prevent the British Empire from dominating the canal to the extent of every power, right, and privilege included in these concessions. Nicaragua and Costa Rica could not present an argument or a plausible protest, against such dominion by Great Britain, and we could only interpose an argument upon the Monroe doctrine, as it was emasculated by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, if we stood simply on our treaty relations for the measure of our rights.

But we are solemnly warned and assured by the convictions of every American heart that it would be dangerous, unpatriotic, and cowardly in us to admit any transatlantic power to usurp the place we naturally occupy towards that route of transit between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. We have a duty in this matter, laid upon us by the hand of Providence, which we cannot evade, and a power to execute that command, which we cannot surrender, that compel us to take a decisive part in this greatest work laid out for human hands to complete. If our internal policy is not such as to make us the least and most impotent of all the great powers, and to fetter our hands when we would stretch them forth to enlarge our commerce, increase our mail facilities, lower the shipping charges upon our productions, increase our population and their industries, and send out fleets to protect our coasts and to secure respect for our flag, there is no question as to our power and duty to aid in the construction of the Nicaragua Canal.

As to getting closer to the subject and

exerting sovereign dominion over the canal in the country where it is located, which some enemies of the canal insist that we should do, the answer is that we would add nothing to our proper influence over the canal by this means, and, in doing this by force, we should dishonor ourselves in the esteem of sister republics that have always trusted the honor and integrity of the United States. Then, recent history would condemn us in the eyes of all nations, for, when Nicaragua tendered to us almost the full measure of sovereignty over the territory occupied by the canal, we seemed to shrink from that opportunity, as the ghost of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty seemed to rise from its forgotten grave to warn us of danger. After that, it ill becomes us to say that we will have no canal unless we shall first have usurped the sovereignty over Nicaragua and Costa Rica.

The Suez Canal, with almost 100 miles of continuous digging, cost about $100,000,000; of this sum $30,000,000 was wasted in interest, commissions, changes of location, and bad management. That canal has now a traffic of nearly 9,000,000 tons annually, and it must be speedily enlarged to accommodate the commerce that is crowding through it to the western coast of the Pacific Ocean. The Nicaragua Canal has 29½ miles of canal prism, or axial, line. Of this one-third is very light dredging. The total length of this transit, from sea to sea, is 169½ miles; of this line, 155¼ miles is slack-water navigation at an elevation of 110 feet above the level of the sea.

This small lift is overcome by six locks—three on either side of the lake. The entire cost of the canal ready for use, as estimated by Mr. Menocal, allowing 25 per cent. for contingencies, is $65,084,176. A board of five other great engineers went over Mr. Menocal's measurements and estimates with great care, and out of abundant caution, and not because of any substantial changes in his figures, they added to his estimates another 20 per cent. for contingencies, and so changed his estimate as to make the total cost of the canal ready for service, $87,799,570. It seems that this may be reasonably accepted as the outside possible cost of the canal.

But, if we run up the conjectural cost to $100,000,000, the canal, if built for that sum, must be the most valuable property in the world, of its magnitude. The tonnage, annually, can scarcely fall below that of the Suez Canal. It will gradually exceed that amount. If it is two-thirds as great as that which passes through the St. Mary's Canal on the lakes it will equal 9,000,000 tons. Who does not know that it must be greater than the traffic supplied by so small an area of inland country?

A just estimate would be fixed, confidently, by the most careful and hesitating persons at 9,000,000 tons per annum, to say nothing of income from passengers, of whom swarms will emigrate to the Pacific coast. On this estimate we could place the tolls at the rate of $1 per ton, and realize $9,000,000 per annum. Take $3,000,000 of this sum for maintenance of the canal, which will not exceed half that sum; $3,000,000 for interest on the bonded debt, and $3,000,000 for the stockholders, and we will have a result that should excite the cupidity of the most grasping speculator. But the true friend of the industrial and commercial people will see in this result a saving to industry and commerce of more than one-half the charges for tonnage that are now paid to the Suez Canal.

If the United States is the owner of 80,000,000 of the 100,000,000 of the stock in this canal, and if it is to cost $100,000,000 to build it, the dividends on that 80,000,000 of stock, employed in a sinking fund and invested in the bonds of the company, would pay the entire cost of construction and the interest on the bonds in less than fifty years.

These are some of the indisputable facts that show that it is a good financial operation, and a duty that concerns the honor, welfare, and security of the United States. Above all, it will stand as an example to mankind to prove that the great republic of republics is the best form of political government for securing the welfare of the citizen and the fruits of his liberties. It will, indeed, be the crowning glory of this era that the Nicaragua Canal should be built by the aid, and controlled by the influence, of the United States.

The people who have money will build this canal, if no government takes it in

hand. But some other government besides Nicaragua or Costa Rica will build and control it. The people of Europe built the Suez Canal when the profits of such an investment were vaguely conjectural. The French people poured hundreds of millions of francs into the Panama Canal scheme, and would repeat the investment if they had a hope of success. If their money had been honestly expended on the present line of the Nicaragua Canal, it would now be in operation, and we would be vainly endeavoring to get our rights there, as we are now doing with reference to the American railroad at Panama. The people will build this canal if some government does not build it, and they will not be American people. It will cost the canal company $250,000,000 to raise the money to build the canal, and our coastwise and foreign commerce will be taxed on that basis for its use. If we submit to that exaction, without causing a trouble that would spread through the world, it will be a new and dark chapter in our history. The just, wise, and safe policy is to prevent such a disaster; to turn aside the temptation to careless indifference, and to prevent danger rather than to take the chances of finding a rough road to our future destiny.

A government that has given far more than $100,000,000 to build transcontinental railroads should not fear to invest money, on an assured basis of profit, in order to give some of the advantages of fair competition in transportation charges to the great body of the industrial classes. Unpleasant scandals did attend the use of the money raised on the credit of the government, in the building of one of these railroads, but corruption was made possible by the absence of governmental control in the board of directors. A repetition of that wrong has become impossible. Those railroads are our pride, as a people. They are essential parts of our civilization and indispensable factors in our government; but they are becoming too much a burden upon our internal and external commerce. Water transportation through the Isthmus of Darien is to be the efficient and just competitor for transcontinental traffic, and will add immensely to their income, at lower rates of transportation, by the rapid increase of population on the Pacific slope. As we have aided great corporations by building railroads for them, let us now aid the people by building a canal that will make freights cheaper and will enrich the common treasury.

Morgan, Lewis Henry, anthropologist; born in Aurora, N. Y., Nov. 21, 1818; graduated at Union College in 1840; and became a lawyer in Rochester, N. Y. He was deeply interested in the history of the American Indians, and was among the first to examine into their origin. He was the author of *Letters on the Iroquois; Houses and House-Life of the American Aborigines;* and *The American Beaver and His Works.* He also arranged the material, much of which he had himself collected, for the work entitled *Systems of Consanguinity and Affinity of the Human Family,* published by the Smithsonian Institution. He died in Rochester, N. Y., Dec. 17, 1881.

Morgan, Thomas Jefferson, clergyman; born in Franklin, Ind., Aug. 17, 1839; educated at Franklin College; served in the National army in 1862–65, receiving the brevet of brigadier-general; graduated at the Rochester Theological Seminary in 1868. Later he was professor of homiletics and church history at the Baptist Theological Seminary in Chicago; United States commissioner of Indian affairs; and corresponding secretary of the American Baptist Home Mission Society. His publications include *Patriotic Citizenship; The Negro in America;* etc. He died in Ossining, N. Y., July 13, 1902.

Morgan, William, Freemason; born in Culpeper county, Va., in 1775; was in the battle of New Orleans; and was a brewer in Toronto, Canada, in 1821. He was a resident, in 1826, of Batavia, N. Y., where he was seized, carried to Fort Niagara, and, as many persons have since believed, was drowned in Lake Ontario, Sept. 19, 1826, because it was reported that he was about to publish an exposure of the secrets of Freemasonry. This affair created intense excitement and a new political party. See Anti-masonic Party.

Morgan and Gaines, Forts, Seizure of. On the night of Jan. 3, 1861, Col. J. B. Todd, under orders of Governor Moore, embarked on a steamboat, with four companies of Confederate volunteers

for Fort Morgan, at the entrance to Mobile Harbor, about 30 miles below the city. They reached the fort at about 3 A.M. the next day. The garrison made no resistance, and cheered the flag of Alabama when it was put in the place of that of the United States. At 5 A.M. the fort was in the hands of the Confederates. One of the captors wrote: "We found here about 5,000 shot and shell; and we are ready to receive any distinguished strangers the government may see fit to send on a visit to us." Fort Gaines, on Dauphin Island, opposite Fort Morgan, shared the fate of the latter. That morning, Jan. 4, the United States revenue cutter *Lewis Cass* was surrendered to the collector of the port of MOBILE (*q. v.*). See BOWYER, FORT.

Morgan City. See BRASHEAR CITY.

MORMONS

Mormons, the most common name of members of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints. This sect, whose origin and growth are strange social phenomena, originated with Joseph Smith, a native of Vermont, who pretended that as early as 1823, when he was living with his father in Ontario (now Wayne) county, N. Y., at the age of fifteen years, he began to have visions. He said God had then revealed to him that in a certain hill were golden plates, on which were written the records of the ancient inhabitants of America, and that with the plates would be found two transparent stones, which were called in the Hebrew tongue Urim and Thummim, on looking through which the inscriptions on the golden plates would become intelligible. He said that four years afterwards (Sept. 22, 1827) the angel of the Lord had placed these golden plates and their interpreters in his hands. The inscriptions were neatly engraved on the plates in hieroglyphics of the "reformed Egyptian," then not known on the earth. From these plates, with the aid of the Urim and Thummim, Smith, sitting behind a blanket-screen to hide the plates from eyes profane, read the *Book of Mormon* (or *Golden Bible*, as he sometimes called it) to Oliver Cowdery, who wrote it down as Smith read it. It was printed in 1830 in a volume of several hundred pages. Appended to the narrative is a declaration signed by Oliver Cowdery, David Whitmer, and Martin Harris in these words: "We declare, with words of soberness, that an angel of God came down from heaven, and he brought and laid before our eyes, that we beheld and saw the plates and the engravings thereon." These the Mormons call the "Three Witnesses." Several years afterwards these men quarrelled with Smith, renounced Mormonism, and solemnly declared that their testimony was false.

The *Book of Mormon* is a collection of sixteen distinct books, professing to be written at different periods by successive prophets. Its style is that of our English version of the Bible, from which quotations to the amount of 300 pages of the work are made without allusion to their source. Smith and Rigdon became partners in the scheme of establishing a new church. With this *Book of Mormon* in their hands as text and authority, they began to preach the new gospel. They found followers, and in April, 1830, organized the first Mormon church at Manchester, N. Y., when the members numbered thirty. Smith pretended to be guided by a series of revelations. By one of these he was directed to lead the believers to Kirtland, O., which was to be the seat of the New Jerusalem. They went, and converts rapidly appeared. Desiring a wider field for the growth of the Church, Smith and Rigdon found it in Jackson county, Mo., where, at Independence, Smith dedicated the site for the temple to be erected by the Saints. Then they went back to Kirtland to remain five years and "make money." There they established a mill, a store, and a bank. Smith was president of the latter, and Rigdon was cashier, and the neighboring country was flooded with the bank's worthless notes. Accused of fraudulent dealing, a mob dragged Smith and Rigdon from their beds (March 22, 1832), and tarred and feathered them.

About this time BRIGHAM YOUNG (*q. v.*), a native of Vermont, a painter and glazier, became a convert, and joined

the Mormons at Kirtland. His ability and shrewdness soon made him a leader, and when a new organization of the Church occurred, and a hierarchy was established with twelve apostles, he was ordained one of them, and was sent out to preach the new gospel. They built a costly temple at Kirtland, which was dedicated in 1836. Their first missionaries to Europe were sent in 1837. Early the next year the bank at Kirtland failed, and Smith and Rigdon, to avoid arrest for fraud, decamped in the night and took refuge in Missouri, where a large number of Mormons had gathered. They were driven by the exasperated inhabitants

The Mormons were kindly received in Illinois. Lands were given them, and Smith was directed by a revelation to build a city, to be called Nauvoo, at Commerce. He laid out the city, sold lots to his followers at high prices, and amassed a considerable fortune. Nauvoo soon became a city of several thousand inhabitants, the Saints being summoned by a new revelation to assemble there from all parts of the world, and to build a temple for the Lord, and a hotel in which Smith and his family should "have place from generation to generation, for ever and ever." Extraordinary privileges were given to Nauvoo by the legislature

THE HOME OF BRIGHAM YOUNG.

towards the western border of the State, where Smith and Rigdon joined them. In conflicts with the Mormons, several were killed on each side. Finally, late in 1838, these conflicts assumed the character of civil war, and apostates from the Mormon Church declared that Smith was regarded by his followers as superior to all earthly magistrates, and that it was his avowed intention to possess himself of the State. The armed Mormons defied the laws. Smith and Rigdon were arrested on a charge of treason, murder, and felony. The Mormons were finally driven out of Missouri; and, to the number of several thousands, they crossed the Mississippi into Illinois, where they were joined by Smith, who had broken out of jail.

of Illinois, and Smith and Rigdon exercised almost unlimited power. They organized a military corps called the "Nauvoo Legion," of which Smith was made lieutenant-general, and they chose a site for a temple on a bluff, the plan of which, it was said, had been revealed to Joseph Smith, their leader, and a "Gentile" architect was employed to build it. Its corner-stone was laid April 6, 1841. It was built of beautiful white limestone. In style, size, and decorations, it was intended to rival every other fane on the globe. Rumors of scandalous practices among the Mormons began to be circulated, and the leaders resolved to desert "the City of Beauty." They had expended $1,000,000 on their temple, and it was

not yet finished; but they determined to dedicate it. That ceremony was a scene of great interest. Young men and maidens came with festoons of flowers to decorate the twelve elaborately carved oxen upon which rested the great baptismal laver. Prayers were uttered, chants were sung, and, in the midst of bishops in their sacerdotal robes, the voice of the Seer (Brigham Young) was heard pronouncing the temple dedicated to the service of Almighty God. Over the door was placed this inscription:

"THE HOUSE OF THE LORD.

"BUILT BY THE CHURCH OF JESUS CHRIST OF LATTER-DAY SAINTS.

"HOLINESS TO THE LORD."

On the day when the temple was dedicated it was abandoned to the "Gentiles." Thirty months afterwards it was destroyed by fire; and in May, 1850, "the City of Beauty" was desolated by a tornado, and the partially restored temple was cast to the earth a heap of ruins.

Smith had been almost absolute in power and influence; and as early as 1838 he had by persuasion corrupted several women, calling them "spiritual wives," although he had a lawful wife to whom he had been married eleven years. She naturally became jealous, and, to pacify her, Smith pretended to receive (July 12, 1843) a revelation authorizing men to have more than one wife. So polygamy was established among the Mormons. Much scandal was created at Nauvoo. The "Apostles" strenuously denied the fact until it could no longer be concealed, when it was admitted (1852), and boldly avowed and defended on the authority of the revelation in 1843. Smith's licentiousness became so flagrant that a great uproar was created at Nauvoo, and he was denounced as a corrupter of virtue. The affidavits of sixteen women were published to the effect that Smith and Rigdon had tried to persuade them to become "spiritual wives." Great excitement followed. Smith and some followers having destroyed the property of one of his accusers, attempts were made to arrest him, when the Mormons, armed, defended him. At last he, his brother Hyrum, and others were lodged in jail at Carthage in 1844. On the evening of June 27 a mob attacked the jail, and the "Prophet" and his brother were shot dead. Rigdon now aspired to be the leader of the Mormons, but Brigham Young had himself appointed president of the Church, and Rigdon, becoming contumacious, was cast out to be "buffeted for 1,000 years."

Public sentiment in Illinois soon set strongly against the Mormons. Armed mobs attacked the smaller settlements, and also Nauvoo, their city. At length a special "revelation" commanded their departure for the Western wilderness; and in February, 1846, 1,600 men, women, and children crossed the Mississippi River on the ice, and, travelling with ox-teams and on foot, penetrated the Indian country and rested at Council Bluffs, on the Missouri River. Other bands continued to emigrate; and finally, in September, 1846, the last lingering Mormons at Nauvoo were driven out at the point of the bayonet by 1,600 troops. At their resting-place they were met by a requisition for 500 men for the army in Mexico, which was complied with. The remainder stayed, turned up the virgin soil, and planted there. Leaving a few to cultivate and gather for wanderers who might come after them, the host moved on. Order reigned. To them the voice of their Seer (Brigham Young) was the voice of God. Every ten wagons were under the command of a captain, who obeyed a captain of fifty, and he, in turn, obeyed a centurion, or captain of 100. Discipline everywhere prevailed. They formed Tabernacle Camps, where a portion of them stopped to sow and reap, spin and weave, and perform necessary mechanical work. They had singing and dancing; they made short marches and encamped in military order every night; they forded swift-flowing streams and bridged the deeper floods.

Many were swept away by miasmatic fevers; and when winter fell upon them in the vast plains, inhabited by Indians, they suffered much, though more kindly treated by the Indians than they had been by their own race. They made caves in the sand-hills; and in the spring of 1847 they marked out the site of a city upon a great prairie, on the bank of the Missouri River, where the Omahas dwelt. There more than 700 houses were built, a tabernacle was raised, mills and workshops were construct-

ed, and a newspaper, *The Frontier Guardian,* was established. The city was called Kane, in honor of Colonel Kane (brother of the Arctic explorer), who gave them much aid in their exodus. During the summer and early autumn bountiful harvests were gathered. From Kane they sent out missionaries to Oregon and California, and even to the Sandwich Islands, while others went forward deeper into the wilderness to spy out a "promised land" for "an everlasting habitation."

They chose the Great Salt Lake Valley, enclosed within lofty and rugged mountains, fertile, isolated, and healthful; and thitherward, in the early summer of 1847, a chosen band of 143 men, accompanied by their wives and children and the members of the high council, with seventy wagons drawn by horses, proceeded as pioneers to take possession of the country. They passed up the north fork of the Platte River to Fort Laramie, crossed that stream, followed its course along the banks of the Black Hills to South Pass, which they penetrated. Along the rivers, through deep cañons, over the lofty Utah Mountains, they toiled on until, on the evening of July 20, they saw, from the summits of the Wasatch Mountains, the placid Salt Lake glittering in the beams of the setting sun. It was like the vision of the Hebrew law-giver on Mount Pisgah. It was a scene of wondrous interest. Stretched out before them was the Land of Promise where they hoped never to be molested by "Gentiles," or the arm of "Gentile" government. The pilgrims entered the valley on July 21, and on the 24th the president and high council arrived. They chose the site for a city on a gentle slope, on the banks of a stream which they called Jordan, connecting the more southern Utah Lake with the Great Salt Lake. They built a fort, planted seed, and with solemn ceremonies the land

SALT LAKE CITY.

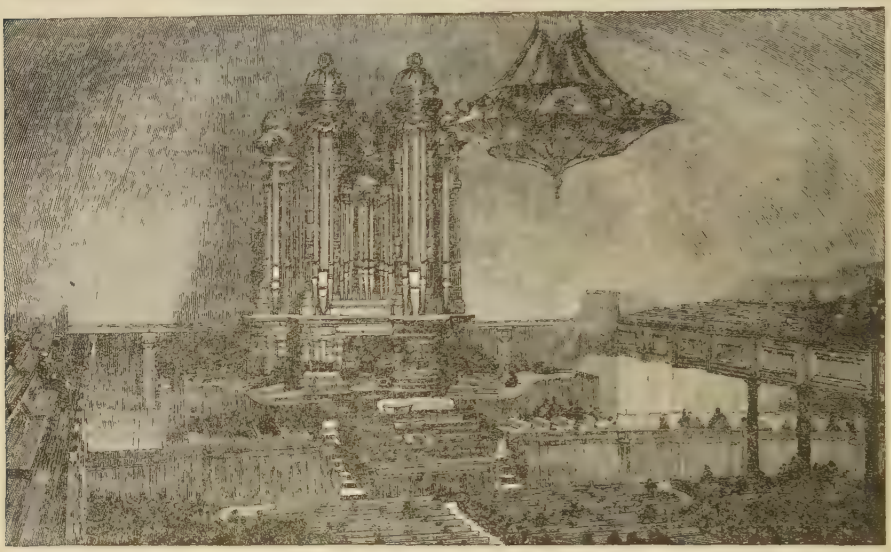
was consecrated to the Lord. In the spring of 1848 fields were seeded, crops were raised, and the blessings of plenty ensued. The inhabitants of Kane pressed forward to the new Canaan; other Saints followed; and the New Jerusalem was laid out within an area of 4 square miles, and called Salt Lake City. A large number of converts arrived from Europe, and in 1849 the Mormons organized an independent State, called Deseret—"the land of the honey-bee." A legislature was elected, and a constitution framed and sent to Washington. Congress refused to recognize it, but formed a territorial government for their country under the name of UTAH (*q. v.*), and appointed Brigham Young territorial governor.

On Aug. 29, 1852, the doctrine of polygamy was openly announced as a divine revelation and a tenet of the Church. From the establishment of Utah as a Territory the authority of the United States was constantly disregarded by the Mormons. A number of federal judges were forced by threats of violence to leave the Territory, and after a mob of armed Mormons had broken into the court-room of the United States district judge in February, 1856, the government sent a military expedition to the scene of the disturbance, and after quiet had been restored the Mormons promised to submit to the federal authority. The promise, however, was not kept, and in 1862 Congress passed an act prohibiting polygamy in the various Territories. The Mormons first ignored this law, then defied it, and afterwards challenged its constitutionality, when the United States Supreme Court in 1879 declared the act valid. Despite this law the Mormons continued to contract plural marriages, which induced Congress in 1882 to pass the Edmunds act, of which the following is the substance:

"That if any male person in a Territory or other place over which the United States has exclusive jurisdiction hereafter cohabits with more than one woman, he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not more than $300, or by imprisonment for not more than six months, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court; that every person who has a husband or wife living who, in a Territory or other place over which the United States has exclusive jurisdiction, hereafter marries another, whether married or single, and any man who hereafter simultaneously, or on the same day, marries more than one woman, in a Territory or other place over which the United States has exclusive jurisdiction, is guilty of polygamy, and shall be punished by a fine of not more than $500 and by imprisonment for a term of not more than five years; but this section shall not extend to any person by reason of any former marriage, whose husband or wife by such marriage shall have been absent for five successive years and is not known to such person to be living and is believed by such person to be dead, nor to any person by reason of any former marriage which shall have been dissolved by a valid decree of a competent court, nor to any person by reason of any former marriage which shall have been pronounced void by a valid decree of a competent court, on the grounds of nullity of the marriage contract; that the President is hereby authorized to grant amnesty to such classes of offenders guilty of bigamy, polygamy, or unlawful cohabitation before the passage of this act, on such conditions and under such limitations as he shall think proper; but no such amnesty shall have effect unless the conditions thereof shall be complied with; that the issue of bigamous or polygamous marriages, known as Mormon marriages, in cases in which such marriages have been solemnized accordingly to the ceremonies of the Mormon sect in any Territory of the United States, and such issue shall have been born before the first day of January, anno Domini eighteen hundred and eighty-three, are hereby legitimated; and that no polygamist, bigamist, or any person cohabiting with more than one woman, and no woman cohabiting with any of those persons described as aforesaid in this section in any such Territory or other place over which the United States has exclusive jurisdiction, shall be entitled to vote at any election held in any such Territory or place, or be eligible for election or appointment to, or be entitled to hold any office or place of public trust, honor, or emolument in,

under, or for any such Territory or place, or under the United States."

This act, however, did not meet the requirements as considered by the federal authorities, and in 1887 Congress passed what is known as the Edmund-Tucker act.



INTERIOR OF THE MORMON TABERNACLE.

Under this act more than 1,000 Mormons, including many leaders of the Church, were fined and imprisoned, and measures were instituted by the Mormon leaders to test the constitutionality of the act. On May 19, 1890, the Supreme Court of the United States declared the act constitutional in an opinion by Justice Bradley, three justices of the court, however, dissenting from the opinion. The following are the principal points in the decision:

"Two questions are involved in this case. The first is, has Congress the power to repeal the charter of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints? This question it answers in the affirmative. The power of Congress over the Territories is generally dependent on the right to acquire the Territory itself. It is derived from the treaty-making power, the power to declare war. The incidents of these powers are those of national sovereignty. Congress had supreme power over the Territories acquired by purchase or otherwise, and generally reserved, as it did in the case of Utah, the right to revoke all acts of the territorial legislature. It follows, therefore, that it had the right to revoke the Church charter.

"A distinguishing feature of Mormonism is well known to be polygamy and an absolute ecclesiastical control of its church-members. Notwithstanding all the efforts to suppress this barbarous practice, the sect perseveres, in defiance of law, in propagating this nefarious doctrine. The existence of such a propaganda is a blot on our civilization. The organization of a community for the spread of polygamy is a return to barbarism. The question, therefore, is whether the promotion of such an unlawful system, so repugnant to our laws, is to be allowed to continue, and whether the enormous funds which have been accumulated shall be wielded for the propagation of the obnoxious practice. The history of the government's dealings with the Mormons is one of patience on the part of the government, and of the resistance to law, and pitiless atrocities on the part of the Mormons.

"The contention that polygamy is a part of the Mormons' religious belief is a sophistical plea. No doubt the thugs of

India imagined their belief in assassination was a religious belief, but that did not make it so. Society has a perfect right to prohibit offences against the enlightened sentiment of mankind. Since the Church persists in claiming the right to use the funds with which it has been endowed for the purpose of promoting these unlawful practices, the question arises, has the government a right to seize these funds which the Mormons are misusing, and devote them to worthy and charitable purposes, as nearly akin as possible to those to which the funds were dedicated."

After an elaborate historical review of the common law, the court came to the conclusion that Congress had the right to seize the property, and said:

"Congress had before it a contumacious organization, wielding by its resources an immense power in the Territory of Utah and employing those resources in constantly attempting to oppose, subvert, and thwart the legislation of Congress and the will of the government. Under such circumstances we have no doubt of the right of Congress to do as it did. The decree of the lower court is affirmed."

Justice Fuller said that he and Justices Field and Lamar were constrained to dissent from this decision. The power of Congress to legislate over the Territories was not incident to the treaty-making power; and its power was restricted directly to that expressed or implied in the Constitution. There was no such power granted as that involved in the act under consideration. Congress unquestionably had power to suppress polygamy, and it was immaterial whether the crime was committed in the name of religion. But Congress had not power to seize and confiscate the property of corporations because they may have been guilty of crime. If the purposes of the fund were such as had been depicted, it was impossible to subject it to a purpose as near as possible to the object denounced. In the judgment of the minority the conversion of the fund, contemplated by Congress, was in contravention of the specific limitations of the Constitution.

On Sept. 24 following this affirmation by the Supreme Court, the Mormon Church, for the first time in its history, presented a policy of acquiescence instead of opposition, which was embodied in a remarkable manifesto, issued by Wilford Woodruff, then president of the Church, in which he solemnly denied that the Church was then practising polygamy or plural marriage, and stated that the Endowment House had been taken down by his orders on account of a report that a plural marriage, without his knowledge or consent, had taken place there in the spring of the previous year. The manifesto concluded as follows: "Inasmuch as laws have been enacted by Congress forbidding plural marriages, which laws have been pronounced constitutional by the court of last resort, I do hereby declare my intention to submit to those laws, and to use all my influence with the members of the Church over which I preside to have them do likewise. There is nothing in my teachings to the Church, or in those of my associates, during the time specified, which can reasonably be construed to inculcate or encourage polygamy, and when any elder of the Church has used language which appeared to convey such teaching he has been promptly reproved; and I now publicly declare that my advice to the Latter-Day Saints is to refrain from contracting any marriage forbidden by the laws of the land." On Oct. 6, of the same year, the great semi-annual conference of the Church, attended by apostles, bishops, elders, and about 1,000 people, unanimously adopted the following resolution: "That, recognizing Wilford Woodruff as the president of the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints, and the only man on earth, at the present time, who holds the keys of the sealing ordinances, we consider him fully authorized, by virtue of his position, to issue the manifesto which has been read in our hearing, and which is dated Sept. 24, 1890, and that as a Church in general conference assembled, we accept his declaration concerning plural marriages as authoritative and binding." President Woodruff said at the time: "The action of the conference is conclusive. The Church has no disposition to violate the laws or defy the government. The revelation of God requires us to obey the constitutional laws of the land. The Supreme Court of the United States is the legal interpreter of the laws

and the final arbitrator as to their validity. The Territorial convention has also pronounced in favor of full allegiance to the government, and willing submission to its authority. Judge Zane has recognized the action of the Church as sincere and final, and has rescinded the rule excluding Mormon aliens from naturalization." On pledges of the membership of the Church, and on recommendation of the Utah Commission, President Harrison, on Jan. 4, 1893, issued a proclamation granting full amnesty and pardon to all persons who had, since Nov. 1, 1890, abstained from unlawful cohabitation, "but upon express condition that they shall in future faithfully obey the laws of the United States." On Sept. 27, 1894, President Cleveland issued the following proclamation of amnesty to those who had failed to avail themselves of the clemency offered by President Harrison:

"BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

"A Proclamation:

"Whereas, Congress by a statute approved March 22, 1882, and by statutes in furtherance and amendment thereof, defined the crimes of bigamy, polygamy, and unlawful cohabitation in the Territories and other places within the exclusive jurisdiction of the United States, and prescribed a penalty for such crimes; and,

"Whereas, On or about the 6th day of October, 1890, the Church of the Latter-Day Saints, commonly known as the Mormon Church, through its president, issued a manifesto proclaiming the purpose of said Church no longer to sanction the practice of polygamous marriages, and calling upon all members and adherents of said Church to obey the laws of the United States in reference to said subject matter; and,

"Whereas, On the 4th day of January, 1893, Benjamin Harrison, then President of the United States, did declare and grant a full pardon and amnesty to certain offenders, under condition of future obedience to their requirements, as is fully set forth in said proclamation of amnesty and pardon; and.

"Whereas, Upon the evidence now furnished me, I am satisfied that the members and adherents of said Church generally abstain from plural marriages and polygamous cohabitation, and are now living in obedience to the laws, and that the time has now arrived when the interests of public justice and morality will be promoted by the granting of amnesty and pardon to all such offenders as have complied with the conditions of said proclamation, including such of said offenders as have been convicted under the provisions of said acts;

"Now, therefore I, Grover Cleveland, President of the United States, by virtue of powers in me vested, do hereby declare and grant a full amnesty and pardon to all persons who have, in violation of said acts, committed each of the offences of polygamy, bigamy, adultery, or unlawful cohabitation under the color of polygamous or plural marriage, or who, having been convicted of violation of said acts, are now suffering deprivation of civil rights, having the same, excepting all persons who have not complied with the conditions noted in said executive proclamation of Jan. 4, 1893.

"In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

"Done at the City of Washington this 27th day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-four, and of the independence of the United States the one hundred and nineteenth.

[SEAL.] "GROVER CLEVELAND.

"By the President:

"W. Q. GRESHAM, Secretary of State."

The Congress, on July 16, 1894, passed an act to enable the Territory of Utah to form a State government; and on Jan. 4, 1896, Utah was admitted into the Union as a State. See MOUNTAIN MEADOW MASSACRE.

Morrell, IMOGENE ROBINSON, painter; born in Attleboro, Mass.; educated in Newark, N. J., and in New York City; later studying in Europe. Her works include *The First Battle of the Puritans; Washington Welcoming the Provision Trains at Newburg, N. Y., in 1778; Historical Portrait of Gen. John A. Dix;* portraits of Howell Cobb and John C. Spencer, ex-Secretaries of the Treasury, etc.

MORRILL, JUSTIN SMITH

Morrill, JUSTIN SMITH, legislator; born in Strafford, Vt., April 14, 1810; received an academic education; engaged in mercantile business till 1848, then became interested in agriculture. He entered the national House of Representatives as a Republican in 1855, and served there till March 4, 1867, when he was transferred to the Senate, where he had the longest unbroken term in the history of that body.

For this reason he became popularly known as "the Father of the Senate." He opposed the admission of Kansas as a slave State in 1855; introduced the tariff bill known by his name in 1861; and was a member of the Senate committee on finance from 1867 till his death in Washington, D. C., Dec. 28, 1898.

JUSTIN SMITH MORRILL.

Taking an active part in all the debates relating to the tariff and to coinage, his most notable speech was that in which he opposed the remonetization of silver (see below) on Jan. 28, 1878.

The Remonetization of Silver.—Mr. President,—The bill now before the Senate provides for the resuscitation of the obsolete dollar of 412½ grains of silver, which Congress entombed in 1834 by an act which diminished the weight of gold coins to the extent of $6^{6}/_{10}$ per cent., and thus bade a long farewell to silver. It is to be a dollar made of metal worth 53⅝ pence per ounce, or 10 cents less in value than a gold dollar, and on Jan. 3, awkwardly enough, worth 8¾ cents less than a dollar in greenbacks, gold being only 1¼ per cent. premium, but, nevertheless, to be a legal tender for all debts, public or private, except where otherwise provided by contract. The words seem to be aptly chosen to override and annul whatever now may be otherwise provided by law. Beyond this, as the bill came from the House, the holders of silver bullion —not the government or the whole people —were to have all the profits of coinage and the government all of the expense. . . .

The bill, if it becomes a law, must at the very threshold arrest the resumption of specie payments, for, were the holders of the United States notes suddenly willing to exchange them for much less than their present value, payment even in silver is to be postponed indefinitely. For years United States notes have been slowly climbing upward, but now they are to have a sudden plunge downward, and in every incompleted contract, great and small, the robbery of Peter to pay Paul is to be foreordained. The whole measure looks to me like a fearful assault upon the public credit. The losses it will inflict upon the holders of paper money and many others will be large, and if the bill, without further radical amendments, obtains the approval of the Senate, it will give the death-blow to the cardinal policy of the country, which now seeks a large reduction of the rate of interest upon our national debt. Even that portion now held abroad will come back in a stampede to be exchanged for gold at any sacrifice. The ultimate result would be, when the supply for customs shall have been coined and the first effervescence has passed away, the emission of silver far below the standard of gold; and when the people become tired of it, disgusted or ruined by its stability, as they soon would be, a fresh clamor may be expected for the remonetization of gold, and another clipping or debasing of gold coins may follow to bring them again into circulation on the basis of silver equivalency. In this slippery descent there can be no stopping-place. The consoling philosophy of the silver commission may then be repeated, that a fall in the value of either or both of the metals is a "benefaction to mankind." If that were true, then copper, being more abundant and of lower value, should be used in preference to either gold or silver, The gravity of these questions will not be disputed. . . .

If any have silver to sell it is comparatively a small matter, and yet we

earnestly desire that they may obtain for it the highest, as well as the most stable, price; but not at the expense of corn, cotton, and wheat; and it is to be hoped, if any have debts to meet now or hereafter, that they may meet them with the least inconvenience consistent with plain, downright integrity; but, from being led astray by the loud declamations of those who earn nothing themselves and know no trade but spoliation of the earnings of others, let them heartily say, "Good Lord, deliver us." . . .

A stupid charge, heretofore, in the front of debate has been made, and wickedly repeated in many places, that the Coinage Act of 1873 was secretly and clandestinely engineered through Congress without proper consideration or knowledge of its contents; but it is to be noted that this charge had its birth and growth years after the passage of the act, and not until after the fall of silver. Long ago it was declared by one of the old Greek dramatists that "No lie ever grows old." This one is fresh and boneless now as at its birth, and, therefore, swallowed with avidity by those to whom such food is nutritious, or by those who have no appetite for searching the documents and records for facts. Whether the act itself was right or wrong does not depend upon the degradation of Congress implied in the original charge. Interested outsiders may glory in libelling Congress, but why should its own members? The act may be good and Congress bad, and yet it is to be hoped that the latter has not fallen to the level of its traducers. But there has been no fall of Congress; only a fall of silver. To present the abundant evidence showing that few laws were ever more openly proposed, year after year, and squarely understood than the Coinage Act of 1873, will require but a moment. It had been for years elaborately considered and reported upon by the deputy comptroller of the currency. The special attention of Congress was called to the bill and the report by the Secretary of the Treasury in his annual report for 1870, 1871, and 1872, where the "new features" of the bill, "discontinuing the coinage of the silver dollar," were fully set forth. The extensive correspondence of the department had been printed in relation to the proposed bill, and widely circulated. The bill was separately printed eleven times, and twice in reports of the deputy comptroller of the currency—thirteen times in all—and so printed by order of Congress. A copy of the printed bill was many times on the table of every Senator, and I now have all of them here before me in large type. It was considered at much length by the appropriate committees of both Houses of Congress; and the debates at different times upon the bill in the Senate filled sixty-six columns of the *Globe*, and in the House seventy-eight columns of the *Globe*. No argus-eyed debater objected by any amendment to the discontinuance of the silver dollar. In substance the bill twice passed each House, and was finally agreed upon and reported by a very able and trustworthy committee of conference, where Mr. Sherman, Mr. Scott, and Mr. Bayard appeared on the part of the Senate. . . .

The gold standard, it may confidently be asserted, is practically far cheaper than that of silver. I do not insist upon having the gold standard, but if we are to have but one, I think that the best. The expense of maintaining a metallic currency is, of course, greater than that of paper; but it must be borne in mind that a paper currency is only tolerable when convertible at the will of the holder into coin—and no one asks for more than that. A metallic currency is also subject to considerable loss by abrasion or the annual wear; and it is quite important to know which metal —gold or silver—can be most cheaply supported. A careful examination of the subject conclusively shows that the loss is nearly in proportion to the length of time coins have been in circulation, and to the amount of surface exposed, although small coins, being handled with less care, suffer most. The well-ascertained result is that it costs from fifteen to twenty-five times more to keep silver afloat than it does to maintain the same amount in gold. To sustain the silver standard would annually cost about 1 per cent. from abrasion; but that of gold would not exceed one-twentieth of 1 per cent. This is a troublesome charge, forever to bristle up in the pathway of a silver standard. It must also be borne in mind that the mint cost of coining silver is many times greater

than that of the same amount in gold. More than 16 tons of silver are required as the equivalent of 1 ton of gold. As a cold matter of fact, silver is neither the best nor the cheapest standard. It is far dearer to plant and forever dearer to maintain.

A double standard put forth by us on the terms now proposed by the commission or by the House bill would be so only in name. The perfect dual ideal of theorists, based upon an exact equilibrium of values, cannot be realized while the intrinsic value of either of the component parts is overrated or remains a debatable question and everywhere more or less open to suspicion. A standard of value linked to the changing fortunes of two metals instead of one, when combined with an existing disjointed and all-pervading confusion in the ratio of value, must necessarily be linked to the hazard of double perturbations and become an alternating standard in perpetual motion.

The bimetallic scheme, with silver predominant—largely everywhere else suspended, if not repudiated—is pressed upon us now with a ratio that will leave nothing in circulation but silver, as a profitable mode of providing a new and cheaper way of pinching and paying the national debt; but a mode which would leave even a possible cloud upon our national credit should find neither favor nor tolerance among a proud and independent people.

The proposition is openly and squarely made to pay the public debt at our option in whichever metal, gold or silver, happens to be cheaper, and chiefly for the reason that silver already happens to be at least 10 per cent. the cheapest. In 1873 to have paid the debt in silver would have cost 3 per cent. more than to have paid it in gold, and then there was no unwillingness on the part of the present non-contents to pay in gold. Silver was worth more then to sell than to pay debts. No one then pulled out the hair of his head to cure grief for the disappearance of the nominal silver option. Since that time it has been and would be now cheaper nominally to pay in silver if we had it, and, therefore, we are urged to repudiate our former action and to claim the power to resume an option already once supposed to have been profitably exercised, of which the world was called upon to take notice, and to pay in silver to-day or to let it alone to-morrow. I know that the detestable doctrine of Machiavelli was that "a prudent prince ought not to keep his word except when he can do it without injury to himself"; but the Bible teaches a different doctrine, and honoreth him "who sweareth to his own hurt and changeth not." If we would not multiply examples of individual financial turpitude, already painfully numerous, we must not trample out conscience and sound morality from the monetary affairs of the nation. The "option" about which we should be most solicitous was definitely expressed by Washington when he said: "There is an option left to the United States whether they will be respectable and prosperous or contemptible and miserable as a nation." Our national self-respect will not be increased when Turkey, as a debt-paying nation, shall be held as our equal and Mexico as our superior. The credit of a great nation cannot even be discussed without some loss; it cannot even be tempted by the devious advantages of legal technicalities without bringing some sense of shame; but to live, it must go, like chastity, unchallenged and unsuspected. . . .

The argument relied upon in favor of a bimetallic standard as against a monometallic seems to be that a single-metal standard leaves out one-half of the world's resources; but the same thing must occur with the bimetallic standard unless the metals can be placed and kept in a state of exact equilibrium, or so that nothing can be gained by the exchange of one for the other. Hitherto this has been an unattainable perfection. A law fixing the ratio of sixteen or fifteen and one-half of silver to one of gold, as proposed by different members of the commission, would now be a gross over-valuation of silver and wholly exclude gold from circulation. It will hardly be disputed that the two metals cannot circulate together unless they are mutually convertible without profit or loss at the ratio fixed at the mint. But it is here proposed to start silver with a large legal-tender advantage above its market value, and with the probability, through further depreciation, of increas-

ing that advantage by which the monometallic standard of silver will be ordained and confirmed. The argument in behalf of a double standard is double-tongued, when in fact nothing is intended, or can be the outcome, but a simple silver standard. The argument would wed silver and gold, but the conditions which follow amount to a decree of perpetual divorcement. Enforce the measure by legislation, and gold would at once flee out of the country. Like liberty, gold never stays where it is undervalued.

No approach to a bimetallic currency of uniform and fixed value can be possible, as it appears to me, without the co-operation of the leading commercial nations. Even with that co-operation its accomplishment and permanence may not be absolutely certain, unless the late transcendent fickleness of the supply and demand subsides, or unless the ratio of value can be adjusted with more consummate accuracy than has hitherto been found by any single nation to be practicable. . . .

I have failed of my purpose if I have not shown that there has been so large an increase of the stock of silver as of itself to effect a positive reduction of its value: and that this result has been confirmed and made irreversible by the new and extensive European disuse of silver coinage. I have indicated the advisability of obtaining the co-operation of other leading nations, in fixing upon a common ratio of value between gold and silver, before embarking upon a course of independent action from which there could be no retreat. I have also attempted to show that, even in the lowest pecuniary sense of profit, the government of the United States could not be the gainer by proposing to pay either the public debt or the United States notes in silver; that such a payment would violate public pledges as to the whole, and violates existing statutes as to all that part of the debt contracted since 1870, and for which gold has been received; that the remonetization of silver means the banishment of gold and our degradation among nations to the second or third rank; that it would be a sweeping 10 per cent. reduction of all duties upon imports, requiring the imposition of new taxes to that extent; that it would prevent the further funding of the public debt at a lower rate of interest and give to the present holders of our 6-per-cent. bonds a great advantage; that, instead of aiding resumption, it would only inflate a currency already too long depreciated, and consign it to a still lower deep; that, instead of being a tonic to spur idle capital once more into activity, it would be its bane, destructive of all vitality; and that as a permanent silver standard it would not only be void of all stability, and the dearest in its introduction and maintenance, but that it would reduce wages to the full extent of the difference there might be between its purchasing power and that of gold.

Free-Trade or Protection.—In 1890 Senator Morrill made the following contribution to the Gladstone-Blaine controversy concerning free-trade and protection:

Any extended argument of the Right Honorable W. E. Gladstone must always afford ample evidence of great ability, as well as wealth of learning, and it would have been presumption on my part to reply to his argument in support of free-trade, if it were not that protection was the easy side of the question. It was a further encouragement when I found, upon examining in detail Mr. Gladstone's free-trade argumentation, that I could sincerely reciprocate some of his own words, and say, While we listen to a melody presented to us as new, the idea gradually arises in the mind, "I have heard this before," and it has been heard by me so often from our Democratic revenue-reform friends that the refrain, if not a bore, excites neither delight nor alarm.

Remembering, as I do, the masterly speech of Mr. Gladstone when, as chancellor of the exchequer, he opened the debate on the budget of 1853, and also his later eloquent series of remarkable speeches for three days in the Midlothian campaign, I can have no feeling but that of the highest respect for one who must be regarded as the foremost living statesman of our mother-country. For this discussion he appears to have formulated a rule, after the manner of the Marquis of Queensberry, which I cannot refuse to accept, that "in the arena of discussion"

one must take his chance as "a common combatant, entitled to free speech and to fair treatment, but to nothing more."

It is my purpose to controvert some share of the free-trade assertions directly, but for the most part by the general scope of my reply, as to copy at length all of the statements to be refuted, and to follow each with a special reply, would cover too much space. Happily, Mr. Gladstone does not sweeten free-trade by another name and conceal it by what, in America, has been styled its "varioloid," *revenue reform.*

Mr. Gladstone appears to have had the subject of "Free-Trade or Protection" on the anvil ever since he was challenged to its discussion by Mr. McKay, pending the Presidential election of 1888. He admits the victory of protection in that election, but strives to convince Americans of their folly. His great ability as an instructor may be admitted, and his teachings in Great Britain, where he has had experience, are deservedly of the highest authority; but in America, where we all regret that he has never set his foot, they are as unworthy of practical application and as much out of place as British laws for the regulation of the government of India would be if applied to the Dominion of Canada.

It will be claimed by me that the logic of facts and results is more worthy of acceptance than any theory, however plausible it may seem to be, and that by this test American protection has long been triumphant; not arguing that an excess of protection would be beneficial, but in favor of such moderate and healthful discrimination as will protect American industries, from their birth to maturity, against destruction by foreign competition.

Protectionists deny that there is any possible scientific system of tariff upon foreign imports which merits and requires universal application. It is a question of practical experience alone as to what may be best at the time for each and every independent nation, to be most intelligently determined by its own legislative authority.

Mr. Gladstone assumes, in substance, as free-traders generally assume, that free-trade, or the let-alone revenue system, which was started in 1846 with the repeal of the Corn Laws, and practically adopted by Great Britain less than thirty years ago, is based on scientific truth, natural law, and moral virtue, applicable to all nations and to all times alike, and that any other system is not only false, but wasteful and unchristian. This overlauded economical discovery appears to have been unknown to Bacon and Locke, Newton and Paley, unregarded by a great majority of enlightened Christian nations, and especially unregarded by the British colonies. And yet it seems almost a personal grief to Mr. Gladstone that the United States should be unwilling to accept the beatitudes of free-trade, although British interests, as he claims, have prospered, and will prosper, in spite of American adherence to protection. Why not, then, let us alone?

If the whole world were one vast Utopia of communistic brethren, and swords were to be beaten into ploughshares and spears into pruning-hooks, free-trade might be the accepted gospel of all international intercourse, and the glories of patriotism shunned as a reproach; but the world is a conglomerate of different races of men, having discordant ambitions, higher and lower conditions of civilization and wealth, many religious creeds, unequal physical and mental vigor, and aptitudes and habits as diverse as color and climate. The idea that there is any economical principle, whether of science, nature, or morals, which should be left to its own course, and that nothing should be done by any people through legislation to change or to elevate and increase their industrial power, is the fetich of British free-traders. As well might all social virtues be left unprotected and without legislation. As well leave all individuals without the help of education as to leave the nation without such help. It is nothing less than the old fallacy, "Shoot without taking aim, and you will be sure to hit the mark." Can any friend of Ireland, for instance, after years of close contact with a great free-trade kingdom, and with two-thirds of its productive area abandoned to permanent pasture, believe that the free-trade policy has been best for Ireland? The sublime virtue of having no prejudices in favor of their own country does not seem

to have taken root in that part of the United Kingdom.

Mr. Gladstone claims that other nations, and above all others the United States, have derived immense benefits through British free-trade legislation. If this should be admitted, as it need not be, why, then, should the United States wish to revolutionize and change its position by a change of its revenue policy? But he says, "We (Great Britain) have not on this ground any merits or any claims whatever. We legislated for our own benefit and are satisfied with the benefits we have received." Other nations are also satisfied that have legislated for their own benefit, though adversely to free-trade, as, with the exception of the Britannic Isle, the whole of Europe and America now adheres to the doctrine of protection. The people of every nation must be allowed to comprehend best what will be for their own benefit, notwithstanding the gracious efforts of British statesmen to promulgate their precepts and expound their virtuous example. Few outside of Great Britain will care to dispute that free-trade may now be her wisest policy, and perhaps a paramount necessity; nor will any one doubt, were it otherwise, that the policy of free-trade, in spite of the moral sublimity now claimed for it, would be swiftly changed, whether the Tory or the Liberal party were in power. British wealth, however, was founded upon the most stubborn measures of protection that the world has ever known, which were only discontinued after they had accomplished their chief and greatest work—the general perfection and supremacy of their manufactures—as protection, with an enterprising people, is designed to accomplish. Protection was no longer needed, but cheap bread and cheap wages were the British problem to be solved by free-trade.

Great Britain formerly not only exacted heavy protective duties from merchandise imported into her home territories, but she pitilessly monopolized both the export and import trade of her numerous colonies—drawing sustenance from the bosoms of her own daughters, from which the fortunes and titles of many great families were created and the mercantile power of the kingdom established. These colonies are now far more prosperous under their own protective policy, but the mother-country continues to be largely their creditor, and still profits by a large share of their trade.

After nearly 400 years of the most unexampled protection, Great Britain acquired the command of capital, machinery, steam-power, and of long-trained labor, including even that of children, by which to compete successfully in the chief markets for the trade of the world. Her labor during the long season of protection, though never sinking to the level of the Continent, had long been underpaid, by direct act of Parliament until 1813, and underpaid to this day by class domination. It may be true that the wages of British workmen have advanced in the progress of the age even under the system of free-trade, not *post hoc, ergo propter hoc*, but because their best workmen have had a whip in their own hands, and for $20 have had the power in one week to transplant themselves to America, where they could be better fed, better clothed, better educated, and better housed, or where, with fewer hours of labor, they could add from 50 to 100 per cent. to their wages. American competition has thus compelled an increase of free-trade wages, which must be conceded, or their best men would desert the manufacturers, and the latter, it should be confessed, do not seem to be grateful to the American promoters of such good works.

It follows that the British workmen have derived and still derive an immense benefit from the system of American protection. We claim no merit for this, because we also "have legislated for our own benefit and are satisfied with the benefits we have received." The number of British immigrants to the United States, for the year ending Dec. 31, 1888, was 171,141, more being from England than from any other part of the kingdom, and a large proportion being mechanics and skilled workmen. This does not include the many thousands arriving through the back door of Canada, of whom no account is made. This ceaseless flow of British immigrants supplies a multitude of potential reasons why wages in England "have become both generally and absolutely higher, and greatly

higher, under free-trade." Mr. McKay may not have been entirely accurate as to the wages paid in Wigan, though there is unlimited proof on the general subject of the great disparity of British wages when compared with American; but the living testimony of these thousands of British immigrants is an incontestable support of the American contention of protection against all theories.

Workmen in Great Britain, when out of employment, are said to have no resource but the workhouse, but American workmen generally own their own houses, take their own newspapers, and have money in savings-banks. The increase in wages under protection enormously increases the power of consumption by wage-earners and by their families, while free-trade only increases the luxuries of the rich, and the common people find them beyond their reach.

Slavery in America, not caring for the wages of labor, long wedded many Southern States to free-trade, but, having parted from slavery, they are now fast finding reasons for a divorce from free-trade.

Free-trade does not even profess regard for the wages of artisans, and is based wholly on the idea of supplying the demands of the consumer at the lowest cost. How the armies which delve in mines and work in mills and factories are fed and housed, educated and paid, does not concern the "dismal science" of free-trade. —if only they can be cheaply paid. They start in the race by challenging the competition of the lowest-paid laborers of all the world. That wages under free-trade, in such a race, can be equal to wages under protection is glaringly preposterous.

Mr. Gladstone asserts that "in your protected trades profits are hard pressed by wages." The fair inference is—reversing the proposition—that profits of capital are not hard pressed by wages under free-trade. In other words, wages must be hard pressed by free-trade, and this is painfully exhibited by the present abounding strikes of British workmen.

Mr. Gladstone gives Mr. Griffen as authority on British wages, and claims that from 1833 to 1883 the wages paid on exportable manufactures of Bradford and Huddersfield have advanced 20 and 30 per cent. Why go back so far when the complete enjoyment of free-trade is only claimed for less than thirty years? It would possibly be more fair to assume that much of the advance claimed may have occurred long before the era of free-trade. In America we go back further than 1860 to claim an advance of more than double the amount specified in the wages of laborers, both in factories and on farms. But, as Mr. Gladstone does not insist that wages are not higher in America under protection than in Great Britain under free-trade, it would seem superfluous to offer statistical proofs of the wide difference known to exist, and with which the public on both sides of the Atlantic are not altogether unfamiliar. One fresh illustration of the difference, however, may not be inopportune. The late great wage-strike of the London dockmen was made to obtain an increase of one penny per hour — 6*d.* (12 cents), instead of 5*d.* (10 cents), per hour—and the increase of one penny per hour has been reckoned as a crowning victory. But the 'longshoremen, employed in the same kind of work on the docks of New York, are paid 30 cents an hour for day, and 40 cents an hour for night, work. Twelve cents an hour was stoutly resisted in free-trade London, while 250 per cent. higher wages still prevail under protection in New York.

Protectionists claim, as Bismarck claims, that protection puts the chief burden upon the foreigner, who is compelled to pay the duty or give an equivalent by reducing the price of his products They also claim that, in the long run, the consumers supply their wants at less cost than would be possible without protected home competition. For example, years ago moquette carpets brought $5 to $6 per yard, but under protection, and owing to a loom invented by an American, they are now sold at $1.50 per yard and sometimes for less. Bessemer steel rails in 1867 brought $166 per ton, but with a protective duty the price in 1885 was only $28.50 per ton, and $27.50 in 1888. From 1867 to 1888 there were made in the United States 15,803,011 tons of steel rails, and 1,256,857 tons were imported. This new industry gives employment to many thou-

sands of people, and presents only a single example of many showing the creation, as well as the increase, of the wage fund by protection. American railroads unquestionably obtained their steel rails in the aggregate at far less cost than would have been possible even with free rails and dependence upon foreign supply and foreign prices. When the American demand in 1872 exceeded the home supply, the British price at once was advanced from 230*s.* per ton to 350*s.*, and again in 1880 the British price was for the same reason advanced from 170*s.* per ton to 200*s.* This shows how merciless would be the greed of foreigners were our manufactures suspended for lack of protection.

Home manufactures planted in every State alongside of the farmer largely save in distribution the heavy cost and waste of long transportation. Foreign merchandise landed at some seaport must be distributed at great expense across the whole country, and exports of grain must be freighted from the remotest interior States to seaports and then across the Atlantic. Both of these outlays are either wholly avoided or greatly reduced by the presence of home manufactures, which are sold (their value being well known) by the wholesale, as well as the retail, dealer for a much smaller commission than are foreign goods, of the cost and merit of which the public are ignorant.

The immediate proximity to farmers of manufactures is an advantage so great that the holdings of farmers, in every locality of America where such proximity exists, can readily be sold for more than 50 per cent. above the price of land where manufactures have not been established, and annually yield a much larger income.

Americans prefer to make a home market for all of their agricultural products, and not to depend upon uncertain and elusive foreign markets. Every ship-load of wheat or corn exported not only impoverishes the fertility of the land whence it was taken, but tends to reduce both the price abroad and at home. Free-trade in America would cripple, perhaps ruin, both agriculture and manufactures, and protection is accorded to both; for here it is applied to both, and tends not only to shield them from harm, but has operated to increase the wages of agricultural labor equally with the wages of employés in manufactories, which shows that any pretence about unprotected labor is wholly false and intended by American free-traders only to deceive.

We have no class legislation, and protection protects one-half of the population no more than the other; wool as well as cloth. All of our people are now free to labor where they choose, where they can earn the most and receive the highest reward; and the man who to-day works on the farm may to-morrow, if he pleases, find employment in the mine, mill, or factory, and obtain the customary wages awarded to like skill and service.

Protection turns out not merely good work, but the best. Local competition always pushes the best to the front. American locomotives are received in Australia, New Zealand, South America, and elsewhere, as equal to any in the world, and as cheap. Some British manufacturers and traders stamp their cotton goods with American trade-marks, because similar American goods, wherever known, fetch the highest price. House-furnishing and saddlery, hardware, locks, joiners' tools, watches, silverware, jewelry, paper of all kinds, and many other articles of American manufacture are often both superior to and cheaper than similar articles produced abroad. Our agricultural implements are recognized everywhere as the best inventions of the age. American sewing-machines and carriages easily take the lead of foreign fashions and foreign makes. When Mr. Gladstone presented to his forester an axe, he did not seek for one of English make, but found the best and presented one of American make.

Mr. Gladstone declares that under high duties they had the "worst corks in Europe." This was deplorable, but if they had only adopted the American remedy of the Maine law, they would not even have had

"To stop for one bad cork the butler's pay,"

as the demand for corks would suddenly have been estopped. On our part, it is remembered that, prior to the development of home manufactures, America was forced to accept such sorry foreign goods as were

offered, and here was the great dumping-place for inferior and Brummagem articles, which, like Pindar's razors, were "made only to sell." Protection has brought relief from such opposition.

Mr. Gladstone would be humorous, and endeavors to plunge the advocates of protection into the mire of a *reductio ad absurdum* by saying:

> "If the proper object for the legislator is to keep and employ in his country the greatest possible amount of capital, then the British Parliament (*exempli gratiâ*) ought to protect not only wheat, but pineapples."

This tropical illustration, though dimmed by age and long service, shows that free-traders claim not only a monopoly of trade, but of common-sense. The pineapple argument may be dismissed as too far-fetched.

But Mr. Gladstone appears fond of extremes, and pursues the subject by adding the following:

> "If protection be, as its champions (or victims) hold, in itself an economical good, then it holds in the sphere of production the same place as belongs to truth in the sphere of philosophy, or to virtue in the sphere of morals. In this case, you cannot have too much of it; so that, while mere protection is economical good in embryo, such good finds its full development only in the prohibition of foreign trade."

It may be observed, "in the sphere of philosophy," that in the case of fire, water, and air, though all are useful servants, no one would say of either, "You cannot have too much of it." The supporters of American protection, on their guard against all suicidal extremes, propose to reduce, as they have reduced, protective legislation, wherever and whenever the prosperity of their countrymen requires it, and are in no danger of being burned or drowned by protection, though they cannot escape an occasional gust of free-trade from the trade-winds across the Atlantic.

Evidently Mr. Gladstone would enforce the reverse of his proposition, or that "you cannot have too much of" free-trade; doubtless feeling that other nations cannot have too much of it to suit Great Britain. If free-trade is one of the moral virtues, however, as seems to be claimed, is it not rather reckless, "in the sphere of morals," to disregard the wisdom of classic ages handed down by the axiom, *In medio tutissimus ibis?* In their hard-pressed corn, iron, cotton, and silk industries, are there not many Englishmen ready to say of free-trade, "Good Lord, deliver us"?

Certainly Mr. Gladstone has a fondness for the logic of extreme cases, and he asks, in relation to the greater profit in keeping labor and capital at home, this question:

> "But if this really is so, if there be this inborn fertility in the principle itself, why are the several States of the Union precluded from applying it within their own respective borders?"

If this were asked with the expectation of serious consideration, it might be answered that local tariffs between the States would not only be inexpedient, but impossible to enforce, and they are properly superseded by the far better protection afforded by the general government. As a nation, we are one great family, or, as he calls us, "a world, and not a very little world," where each one of the members contributes to the general welfare, where free-trade has a special and exceptional domain for its proper development, and where its results are beneficent. As dependencies of Great Britain, we were annually robbed and had no protection, and therefore declared our independence. It was a great point through the union then established to escape local State tariffs, and national protection was secured in our very earliest legislative acts.

It may not be impertinent now to offer a Roland for an Oliver, and to inquire, if there be inborn fertility in the principle of free-trade, why it is not beneficently applied to the several large and populous colonies of Great Britain by the omnipotence of the British Parliament. Surely a measure of this transcendent importance, which keeps her legislators constantly awake looking with anxious pity after the fiscal and moral interests of the United States, should not permit them to sleep when it equally concerns (to borrow Mr. Gladstone's phrases) the *waste, robbery, and imposition* that are so rampant in British colonies and dependencies—embracing one-seventh of the land surface of the globe and nearly one-fourth of its population. "Why beholdest thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye, but con-

siderest not the beam that is in thine own eye?" Is it possible that Mr. Gladstone should have been unmindful of these great possessions—virgin fields for the planting of unadulterated free-trade—when he penned the following eloquent sentence?

"There opens before the thinking mind when this supreme question is propounded a vista so transcending all ordinary limitations as requires an almost preterhuman force and expansion of the mental eye in order to embrace it."

America won the battle for the colonists in 1776, when they were not suffered by Great Britain to work in the more refined manufactures even for their own consumption. The erection of steel-furnaces and slit-mills in any of her American plantations was prohibited. The exportation from one province to another by water, or even the carriage by land upon horseback or in a cart, of hats, wool, and woollen goods of the produce of America was also wholly prohibited. We have changed all that.

Mr. Gladstone is pleased to say

"That in international transactions the British nation for the present enjoys a commercial primacy; that no country in the world shows any capacity to wrest it from us, except it be America; that, if America shall frankly adopt and steadily maintain a system of free-trade, she will by degrees, perhaps not slow degrees, outstrip us in the race, and will probably take the place which at present belongs to us; but that she will not injure us by the operation."

When all the great markets of the world are drying up as to imports of manufactures, and are being supplied by their own home products, how is it possible that the United States would not, as a rival, injure British trade by coming to the front and taking the place and primacy which at present belong to Great Britain? Their government is making ambitious efforts in every quarter of the globe to obtain an increase of its foreign trade, and, if that is now diminishing, or insufficient for one, how can it be enough for two, or for both England and America?

Of course Mr. Gladstone is sincere. He is among the first, if not the foremost, of loyal Englishmen, and could not be induced to advocate any measure that would not benefit his own country. He sees that free-trade with America would offer a prodigious market for British manufactures, and that absorbing advantage hides everything beyond. But it will not be forgotten that the leaders of Great Britain, he proudly eminent among them, not very long since were quite willing that such primacy as we then alone enjoyed on the American continent should be nullified and overthrown, and for their unlawful aid in that direction made an atonement of $15,000,000.

But Mr. Gladstone plainly and bluntly builds all of his castles in the air relating to our primacy upon our producing more wheat, corn, cotton, and mineral oils for foreign export, and says that we should not invest "in mills or factories to produce yarn or cloth which we could obtain more cheaply from abroad." It follows that he would have the primacy wholly restricted to agricultural exports, and is oblivious of the fact—while his own country furnishes a very limited and about the only foreign market—that our present exports of these products operate adversely upon our agricultural interests, and that the policy of American protection is vigorously maintained in order to create a larger body of consumers at home and to give to agriculture higher rewards. Why should not America have its own home markets? Surely nature is not against it, morality is not against it, and, if free-trade science is against it, so much the worse for the science. We must make the market we do not and cannot elsewhere find. We have found that often less has been obtained for a very large export of cotton than for a medium or smaller one, showing that an excessive crop pays the least profit. Some of our Western States have also found the largest crop of corn most valuable as their cheapest fuel, and the wheat crop in some of our Territories, like that of the apple elsewhere, when very large, pays little more than for the harvesting.

Beyond this, Russia, Egypt, India, and other countries leave us to supply only a pitiful share of any deficiency of European food crops, and that at the minimum prices. South America, and our great American desert, improved by irrigation, may also soon prove the marvels of the age in the production of food crops.

An increase of the supply from any quarter would instantly depress foreign prices, leaving for American exports losses instead of profits; and our farming interests, with increased crops and without an increase of consumers, would sink to the level of those now so greatly depressed in Great Britain. Again, if, as suggested, we were no longer to protect and support home manufactures, or investments in "mills and factories," but put our home market of 95 per cent. in limbo, or the paradise of fools, in order to increase the 5 per cent. (not including cotton) which we occasionally have of such exports, how long would it be before the prices of the products of foreign "mills and factories" would mount far above the present current rates in America? Our manufactures, outside of household industries, amounted in 1880 to $5,369,579,191, and it is estimated will reach $7,000,000,000 in 1890. Were we to surrender this unmatched field to free-trade, the immense capital invested must be largely sacrificed, and thousands of laborers turned adrift, "the world all before them where to choose." Europeans, with their

"discontent
Made glorious summer,"

would rush to fill the void with their products, upon their own terms, and for them a new world would have been discovered by free-trade.

Purchasers of home products are sure to retain capital for the wage fund of laborers in their own country and keep it in circulation; but when purchases are made abroad the capital goes to a bourn whence it never returns.

The increment of capital employed in British manufactures is apparently becoming unsatisfactory and doubtful. If this were not so, why are there so many millions of British capital at the present moment fleeing from their free-trade home and running to and fro in America as supplicants for any random employment? Evidently the wage fund for English workmen would appear to be unstable and on the wing.

As to the charge of waste in practical protection, it would be equally just to charge the blessings of the falling rain and the heat of the summer sun with undue waste. It will be sufficient for an American to point to the fact that the United States since 1860, notwithstanding the boundless losses of both North and South in the late war, has much more than doubled its wealth and population, and since 1865 has reduced its public debt by the large sum of $1,693,426,676, so that our yearly interest charge *per capita* was in 1888 only 63 cents, while that of Great Britain was $3.75 *per capita*, or nearly six times as much. When any equal prosperity shall be visible among the people of Great Britain, it may be proper to meditate on the felicities of free-trade. In this debt-paying race for the primacy, the British are just now only in sight, and Americans are not hard pressed by any rivals.

Free-trade miserably fails to offer remunerative employment or any vitality to the forces of the great mass of the people, and the waste of latent power is enormous. The division of the British population according to occupation, as set forth in their own statistical publications of 1889, was:

Agricultural and industrial.....	10,818,206
Indefinite, unoccupied, and non-productive	19,703,745

Is not free-trade responsible for this extraordinary excess of the non-productive population? These plethoric millions of mere drones surely cannot all be justly charged to the aristocracy.

It will be proper to inquire, What is the practical system of British free-trade, which Americans are so urgently pressed by British statesmen, and by others who are not statesmen, to adopt? It may have worked well or ill for Great Britain; but what is there about it that should lead Americans to renounce the legislative precedents and the wisdom of their fathers, and to abandon the highway of their past and present matchless prosperity in order to follow a later-born experiment of our foremost rival in commerce and manufactures? "I fear the Greeks even when they bring gifts."

To answer the question, we are limited to a survey of the solitary British example, for no other nation treats free-trade as anything better than a delusion and a snare. Free-trade opens in Great Britain by levying a tariff duty on imported

manufactured tobacco of 84 cents to 92 cents per lb.; on unmanufactured tobacco, 104 to 116 cents per lb.; on cigars, $1.32 per lb.; on tea, 12 cents per lb.; on coffee, 3 cents per lb.—if ground or prepared, 4 cents per lb.; on cocoa, raw, 2 cents per lb.—if manufactured, 4 cents per lb. Among other items subject to duty are currants, figs, raisins, plums, prunes, soap, pickles, varnish, wine, gin, and all other spirits. These duties, it will be observed, bear heavily upon laboring people, who consume not less than 90 per cent. of the articles from which the largest part of British tariff revenue is obtained. The so-called revenue duty on tobacco, supplied from America, amounts to at least 1,500 per cent. The duty on tea and coffee is the same upon the lowest grade as upon the highest and choicest varieties. The free-trade idea is to place duties on articles not produced at home, instead of on such as are or ought to be produced there, and is the reverse of the American idea.

But this model free-trade tariff failed to yield (in 1888) more than $98,150,000 of revenue, being only a little more than one-quarter part of the sum ($378,300,000) required for the ordinary support of the British government, and our British friends are compelled annually to exhaust all the resources of extreme taxation to cover the enormous deficiency of thrice as much more.

This dismal but inexorable sequence of the free-trade system has been in America studiously kept out of sight, where it forever should be, except in the emergency of a great war, and it will be enough now to catalogue its many sore titles. Supplemental to British free-trade, and inseparable from it, will be found the following: A land and house tax, paid by occupiers as well as by owners; a tax on legacies and successions; a stamp tax on bills of exchange, receipts, and patents; a tax on carriages, horses, man-servants, guns, and dogs; an excise on gin and all other spirits; and a tax on incomes. The woes of our rebellion gave us all the experience in this sad line of taxation we shall ever covet. Only a nation struggling to preserve its existence, or to protect its people from famine and sudden death, would be willing to tolerate so many Briarean arms clutching at the pockets of the people.

This onerous system of taxation is made necessary by free-trade, and by the ponderous British public debt. The public debt of the United States, less cash in the treasury, is $1,063,004,894, while in 1888 the debt of Great Britain, with about half as much population, was £705,575,073, or $3,527,875,365—almost three and a half times that of the United States.

Revenue for the support of government must be had, but the British system presents its Revolutionary odium, and Americans have lost nothing of their ancient repugnance for stamp and excise taxes. The United States, however, is paying off its public debt upon the canter, and raises its revenue by duties on imports, scarcely felt by taxpayers, but which are a great encouragement to home industries, and so levied that the foreign producer must pay for his entrance to our market. Peddlers are made to pay a license to sell their "truck" by each and every State; and why should not the foreigner, exempt from all local taxes, who seeks to sell his products not merely in one State, but throughout the whole Union, be required to pay for the privilege?

Great Britain has an annual deficiency of food products, and it seems necessary to obtain a foreign supply for more than one-half of her people. Without the command of the sea for transportation this supply might be cut off; and, to obtain means of purchasing it, it is also necessary to export manufactures and undersell all competitors in foreign markets, or her people must go without their daily food.

Free-trade appeared to flourish until it encountered too many protective tariffs of other nations, now universal, and unlikely to be abolished. They are Gibraltars that everywhere frown upon those who are plotting to supersede and destroy the home industries of other people. British free-traders have found it hard to kick against such pricks, and now beg the help of America.

"No other country," Mr. Gladstone says of America, "has the same free choice of industrial pursuits, the same option to lay hold not on the good merely,

but on the best." And yet this free choice, which gives to our people the control of all their natural forces, he would now limit, and give no option of mills and factories. America does not thrust its industrial theories upon Great Britain, and will be happy whether protection or free-trade shall prevail there. The large subsidies that are paid to British ships for carrying foreign mails far transcend what that service might be obtained for if free-trade were allowed with foreign competitors, and the annual sums also paid to large and fast-going steamers, to be utilized first for trade and second for war purposes when needed, furnish examples in the highest fields of protection; and we only lament and criticise our own short-comings in the same service.

Notwithstanding our ancient family difficulties, Great Britain must be credited with more chapters of glory than of shame, and America is now more firmly and tenderly attached to her people than to those of any other nation, and should be claimed as their best and most powerful friend, more especially since Great Britain seems to be step by step Americanized by the extension of the right of suffrage. Still we are now asked, in substance, to plod contentedly with hand-labor, to raise corn and pasture herds, to dismiss our artisans, and forego machinery and all the forces of steam-engines, without which no nation, either in peace or war, can hope to be great or even independent. The selfishness of those who merely seek an extension of British trade may ask for this, but not those who more prize American power and American fraternity. In Europe, Great Britain, if not misrepresented, has no allies, and, among all first-class powers, not one earnest friend. Would it not be a blunder for even British free-traders to promote our acceptance of a policy that would be sure to reduce the United States to the rank of a second-rate power?

Mr. Gladstone bestows lofty praise upon the unrivalled strength of our country by an eloquent recital of the American advantages over all nations, of our immense territory where there is nothing that the soil would refuse to yield, the rare excellence of the climate, the vast extent of coal and other mineral resources, the inventive faculty of the people surpassing all the world, and sums up as follows:

> "I suppose there is no other country of the whole earth in which, if we combine together the surface and that which is below the surface, Nature has been so bountiful to man. The mineral resources of our Britannic Isle have, without question, principally contributed to its commercial pre eminence. But when we match them with those of America, it is Lilliput against Brobdingnag."

Yet in the face of all this, with a continent instead of an island, with twice the population of Great Britain, and with more of the natural aptitudes for the widest fields of manufactures than can be claimed even for the people from whom we sprang, Mr. Gladstone would place "the most inventive nation in the world" in subservience to British free-trade, and confine the American people to the production of cotton, corn, meats, and mineral oils, and have them abandon more millions of manufactures than are annually produced by Great Britain herself, and sink all ambitions for the protection of any products "we could obtain more cheaply from abroad." The anti-climax of the argument is rather conspicuous, and the American people will be in no mood to trail with a "broken wing" their ambition in the dust, and will surrender neither their manhood nor the bountiful gifts of nature.

After all the economical arguments against protection appear to have been concluded, but not without some misgivings as to their efficiency, Mr. Gladstone summons to his aid for the final assault all the terrors of denunciation. He cannot finish what he calls his "indictment against protection" until he has anathematized it as "morally as well as economically bad"—not that all protectionists are bad, but that the system tends to harden all "into positive selfishness." This is an indictment with which all nations are graciously covered except the British, and the British may stand up and thank God that they "are not as other men are, extortioners, unjust, adulterers, or even as this publican." The world, however, will be slow to believe that free-trade was adopted, or is now upheld, for any other reason than its supposed advantages, not to moral, but to British material and trading, interests. If any

nation has exhibited more of purely financial selfishness than embroiders the history of some British administrations, it has not been recorded. This part of the indictment against protection is as gratuitous as it would be to say that not all free-traders are liars, but the system tends to harden all into positive falsification. Though we might highly appreciate the good opinion of Mr. Gladstone, he leaves us in no doubt that it cannot be won unless we "frankly adopt and steadily maintain a system of free-trade." We must, however, frankly and steadily maintain that the terms are too exorbitant.

In his pathetic exhortation to Americans on the selfishness and moral aspects of the question, urging protectionists to be good as well as great, Mr. Gladstone forgets he and his countrymen are not entirely without sin, and may not, therefore, cast the first stone across the Atlantic even to hit Americans. But others have not forgotten that free-trade was begotten by greed for the trade of the world, that it was the British war power which forced, and continues to force, the opium trade upon China, by which the Indian government obtains an annual income of nearly $40,000,000; that the religion of Great Britain, politically established, may have something too much of perfunctory support through the union of Church and State; that its laws of primogeniture were ordained to make the first-born rich and all the rest of the family poor; and that the soil of the United Kingdom is in fewer hands than that of any other country in Europe.

To refute the charge against protection of a tendency to selfishness and lack of morality, American protectionists may, with more pleasure than is afforded by showing that free-traders occupy a glass house, turn the light on all their past history, and offer the evidence of the equality of their laws and citizenship, the uprooting of the inherited laws of primogeniture, the universal education through common schools, the liberal and spontaneous support of Christian churches, the extinction of human slavery originally planted by the mother-country, the free homesteads to the landless, the disbandment of our vast armies at the close of the late war, and their prompt return to the peaceful pursuits of life, the national magnanimity exhibited after victory over rebellion, the payment of our public debt even before it is due, the liberal pensions to those who have suffered in patriotic service (perhaps annually exceeding for like services all British appropriations for the last century), the higher dignity and respect accorded to women, the paternal care of the poor, as well as of the insane, the blind, and deaf-mutes, and the general absence of all beggars.

We appeal finally from Mr. Gladstone to Mr. James Bryce, the author of *The American Commonwealth*, whose work has already placed him in the rank of Gibbon, Motley, and De Tocqueville. Unlike Mr. Gladstone—except that he is also a member of the British Parliament—he is not a partisan, and has devoted years to the study of the United States and its people, visiting every State of the Union for the sole purpose of impartiality and historic veracity. That Mr. Bryce is competent authority on questions of the morals and selfishness of Americans, none will dispute. Setting forth American characteristics, he says:

"They are a moral and well-conducted people."

"The average of temperance, chastity, truthfulness, and general probity is somewhat higher than in any of the great nations of Europe."

"Nowhere are so many philanthropic and reformatory agencies at work." (Vol. ii., pages 247 and 248.)

"In works of active beneficence no country has surpassed, perhaps none has equalled, the United States." (Page 579.)

Mr. Bryce concludes his great work in the following pregnant words:

"America has still a long vista of years stretching before her in which she will enjoy conditions more auspicious than England can count upon. And that America marks the highest level, not only of material well-being, but of intelligence and happiness, which the race has yet attained, will be the judgment of those who look not at the favored few for whose benefit the world seems hitherto to have framed its institutions, but at the whole body of the people."

Morrill, Lot Myrick, financier; born in Belgrade, Me., May 3, 1813; admitted to the bar of Maine in 1839; elected to the State legislature in 1854; president of the

State Senate in 1856; elected governor in 1857; and was United States Senator from 1860 until his appointment as Secretary of the Treasury in 1876. He died in Augusta, Me., Jan. 10, 1883.

Morrill Tariff, so called from its author, JUSTIN S. MORRILL (*q. v.*). See TARIFF.

Morris, CHARLES, naval officer; born in Woodstock, Conn., July 26, 1784; entered the navy in July, 1799, and helped in the destruction of the *Philadelphia* at Tripoli. In the encounter between the *Constitution* and *Guerrière* he was severely wounded. In 1814, while he commanded the frigate *John Adams*, he took her up the Penobscot River for repairs, was blockaded there, and on the approach of the British he destroyed her. In 1825 he commanded the frigate *Brandywine*, which conveyed Lafayette back to Europe after his visit to this country. He was constantly employed in the public service, afloat or ashore, and at the time of his death in Washington, Jan. 27, 1856, was chief of the bureau of ordnance and hydrography. He had the supervision of the Naval Academy at Annapolis for several years. His remains lie in the Oak Hill Cemetery in Washington, and over them is a neat white marble monument.

CHARLES MORRIS.

COMMODORE MORRIS'S MONUMENT.

Morris, CLARA, actress; born in Cleveland, O., in 1848; joined the ballet corps in the Academy of Music there in 1861, and soon became leading juvenile lady. She took the part of leading lady at Wood's Theatre, Cincinnati, in 1869; joined Daly's Fifth Avenue company in New York in 1870; and afterwards achieved great success in emotional rôles, especially as Camille; Alixe; Miss Multon; Mercy Merrick in *The New Magdalen;* Cora in *L'Article 47*, etc. She has contributed to the *St. Nicholas; North American Review; Ladies' Home Journal*, etc.

Morris, GEORGE POPE, journalist and poet; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 10, 1802; in early life made New York his residence, and

contributed verses to the newspapers when he was fifteen years of age. He edited and published the *New York Mirror* in 1823–42, and in 1843 was associated with Nathaniel P. Willis in the publication of the *New Mirror*, and afterwards (1844) in the daily *Evening Mirror*. In 1845 he began the *National Press*, and in 1846 the *Home Journal*. Mr. Morris achieved great popularity as a song-writer. His lyrics are very numerous, one of the best known being *Woodman, spare that tree*. In 1825 he wrote a drama, *Briercliff*, in five acts, founded upon events of the American Revolution. It was performed forty successive nights, and paid the author $3,500. In 1842 he wrote an opera entitled *The Maid of Saxony*. A brief catalogue of Morris's best songs may be found in Allibone's *Dictionary of British and American Authors*. William Howitt, after speaking of the beauty and naturalness of Morris's love-songs, gives, in the following words, a generous touch of the character of all of his writings: "He has never attempted to robe vice in beauty; and, as has been well remarked, his lays can bring to the cheek of purity no blush but that of pleasure." He is properly called "*the* song-writer of America." He died in New York City, July 6, 1864.

Morris, Gouverneur, lawyer; born in Morrisania, N. Y., Jan. 31, 1752; graduated at King's College (now Columbia University) in 1768; admitted to the bar in 1771, and soon acquired great reputation as a lawyer. One of the committee that drafted the constitution of the State of New York, a member of Congress from 1777 to 1780, and one of the most useful of committeemen in that body, he gained much political influence. In 1779 he published a pamphlet containing *Observations on the American Revolution*. In 1781 he was the assistant of Robert Morris, the superintendent of finance. After living in Philadelphia six years, he purchased (1786) the estate of Morrisania from his brother, and made it his residence afterwards. Prominent in the convention that framed the national Constitution, he put that instrument into the literary shape in which it was adopted. In 1791 he was sent to London as private agent of the United States, and from 1792 to 1794 was American minister to France. He had seen many of the phases of the French Revolution, and with a tantalizing coolness had pursued Washington's policy of neutrality towards France and England. This course offended the ardent French republicans, and when making out the letters recalling Genet, the committee of public safety, in which Robespierre and his associates were predominant, solicited the recall of Morris. For reasons of policy the President complied,

but accompanied the letter of recall with a private one, expressing his satisfaction with Morris's diplomatic conduct. This letter, sent by a British vessel, fell into the hands of the French government, and greatly increased the suspicion with which the American administration was regarded. To allay that suspicion, Washington sent Monroe, an avowed friend of the French Revolutionists, as Morris's successor. Mr. Morris afterwards travelled in Europe, and in 1798 returned to the United States. In 1800 he was chosen United States Senator. He was one of the early advocates of the construction of the Erie Canal, and chairman of the canal commission from 1810 until his death in Morrisania, N. Y., Nov. 6, 1816.

Morris, Lewis, statesman; born in New York City, in 1671; son of Richard Morris, an officer in Cromwell's army, who, after settling in New York, purchased (1650) the tract on which Morrisania was subsequently built. Lewis was judge of the Supreme Court of New Jersey, and a member of the council; for several years

was chief-justice of New York and New Jersey, and governor of New Jersey from 1738 to 1746. He died in Kingsbury, N. J., May 21, 1746. His son, ROBERT HUNTER (born about 1700; died Jan. 27, 1764), was chief-justice of New Jersey for twenty years, and for twenty-six years one of the council.

Morris, LEWIS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Morrisania, N. Y., in 1726; graduated at Yale College in 1746, and was in Congress in 1775, serving on some of the most important committees. To him was assigned the delicate task of detaching the Western Indians from the British interest, and early in 1776 he resumed his seat in Congress. His fine estate near New York was laid waste by the British. In 1777 he left Congress, was in the State legislature, and became major-general of the militia. Three of his sons were soldiers in the Continental army. He died in Morrisania, N. Y., Jan. 22, 1798.

Morris, ROBERT, financier, and a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in England, Jan. 20, 1734; came to America at the age of thirteen years; entered the mercantile house of Charles Willing,

ROBERT MORRIS.

of Philadelphia, and in 1754 entered into partnership with his son. At the beginning of the Revolution it was the largest commercial house in Philadelphia. Mr. Morris espoused the cause of the colonies, and was a member of the Continental Congress in 1775. On July 2, 1776, he voted against the resolution for independence, and on the 4th he refused to vote on the Declaration because he considered the movement premature. When it was adopted, he signed it.

Hard money was lacking to pay the bounties offered by the Congress when Washington attempted to recruit his army (December, 1776). It was an urgent necessity at a critical moment. The Congress had just ordered the issue of $5,000,000 in paper money, but the credit of that body was already so low that many good republicans refused to take that currency. Washington applied to Morris, whose credit stood high as well as his skill as a financier, for a large sum in hard money. Morris doubted his ability to raise it. In a desponding mood he left his counting-room at a late hour, musing, as he walked, on the subject of the requisition. He met a wealthy member of the Society of Friends, to whom he made known his wants. "Robert, what security canst thou give?" asked the Friend. "My note and my honor," Morris replied. "Thou shalt have it!" was the response of the Quaker; and the next day Morris wrote to Washington, "I was up early this morning to despatch a supply of $50,000 to your excellency."

He served in Congress at different times during the war, and at the same time was largely engaged in managing the financial affairs of the country, making use of his personal credit to support the public credit. With other citizens he established a bank in Philadelphia in 1780, by which means the army was largely sustained. In 1781 he supplied almost everything to carry on the campaign against Cornwallis. When Washington received a letter from Count de Grasse saying that he could not yet leave the West Indies, Morris was at headquarters at Dobb's Ferry with Richard Peters, secretary of the board of war. The commander-in-chief was sorely disappointed, for he saw little chance of success against the British at New York without the aid of a French fleet. He instantly conceived the campaign against Cornwallis. Turning to Peters, he said, "What can you do

for me?" "With money, everything; without it, nothing," replied the secretary, at the same time turning an anxious look towards Morris, who comprehended the expression. "Let me know the sum you want," said the superintendent of finance. Washington soon handed him estimates. Morris borrowed $20,000 from the French commander, promising to repay it in October. The arrival of Colonel Laurens (Aug. 25) at Boston with a part of the subsidy of over $1,000,000 from France for which he had negotiated enabled Morris to keep his engagement.

Appointed superintendent of finance and Secretary of the Treasury under the Confederation in 1781, he served until 1784, when the fiscal affairs of the country were placed in the hands of three commissioners. As superintendent of finance he proposed a scheme for funding the public debt of the United States in 1782, and to provide for the regular payment of the interest on it. For these purposes he proposed a very moderate land-tax, a poll-tax, and an excise on distilled liquors. He also proposed to add to the sum thus raised 5 per cent. of the duties on imports, if the States would consent to it, and to reserve the back public lands as security for new loans in Europe. This plan, if carried out, it was thought, would establish the public credit. But the jealous States would not give their consent. He assisted in framing the national Constitution, and was chosen the first United States Senator for Pennsylvania under it. Washington offered him the Secretaryship of the Treasury, but he declined it. In 1784 he, in partnership with Gouverneur Morris, sent to Canton, China, the first American ship ever seen in that port. Entering into land speculations in his old age, he lost his fortune, and was in prison for debt for some time. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 8, 1806.

Morris, ROGER, military officer; born in England, Jan. 28, 1717; entered the royal army as captain in 1745; accompanied Braddock in his unfortunate expedition in 1755; served under Loudoun in 1757, and in 1758 married Mary Phillipse, heiress to the Phillipse Manor, N. Y. He served with distinction under Wolfe, and was with him in the siege of Quebec in 1759. Morris (holding the rank of major) retired from the army in 1764, and took a seat in the executive council of New York late in that year. Adhering to the British crown, when the Revolution came his property and that of his wife were confiscated, and at the peace he retired, with his family, to England, where he died, Sept. 13, 1794.

Morris, STAATS LONG, military officer; born at Morrisania, N. Y., Aug. 27, 1728; brother of Lewis Morris, the signer. In 1756 he was a captain in the British army, and in 1761 was lieutenant-colonel of a regiment of Highlanders. He was a brigadier-general as early as 1763, and in 1796 had reached the rank of general. The next year he was made governor of Quebec. His first wife was the Duchess of Gordon. He died in 1800.

Morris, THOMAS, jurist; born in Augusta county, Va., Jan. 3, 1776; removed to Ohio in 1795; admitted to the bar of Ohio in 1804; was a member of the legislature in 1806–30; elected judge of the Supreme Court of the State in 1830; and United States Senator in 1832. In 1844 the Liberal party nominated him for Vice-President on the ticket with James G. Birney. He died in Bethel, O., Dec. 7, 1844.

Morris, WILLIAM HOPKINS, military officer; born in New York City, April 22, 1825; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1851; commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862; and brevetted major-general in 1865. He designed a repeating carbine in 1869. His publications include *A System of Infantry Tactics;* and *Tactics for Infantry, armed with Breech-loading or Magazine Rifles.* He died in North Long Branch, N. J., Aug. 26, 1900.

Morris, WILLIAM WALTON, military officer; born in Ballston Springs, N. Y., Aug. 31, 1801; graduated at West Point in 1820, and served against the Indians under Colonel Leavenworth in 1823; gained promotion to major for services in the Seminole War, and to colonel in 1861. He served under Taylor in the war against Mexico, and was military governor of both Tampico and Puebla. When the Civil War broke out he was in command at Fort McHenry, where he defied the threatening Confederates, and promptly

turned the guns of the fort menacingly on the city during the riots in Baltimore, April 19, 1861. He was brevetted brigadier-general in June, 1862, and major-general in December, 1865. He died in Baltimore, Md., Dec. 11, 1865. See BALTIMORE; MCHENRY, FORT.

Morrison, WILLIAM RALLS, statesman; born in Monroe county, Ill., Sept. 14, 1825; private in Mexican War; member of the State legislature, 1857–59 (speaker, 1859); colonel of the 49th Illinois U. S. V., 1861–63; member of Congress, 1860–65 and 1873–87; author of the bill known as the horizontal, or Morrison, tariff bill; inter-State commerce commissioner, 1887–97.

Morristown, ENCAMPMENT AT. After the battle at Princeton, June 3, 1777, Washington led his wearied troops to Morristown, N. J., and placed them in winter encampment. There he issued a proclamation requiring the inhabitants who had taken British protection to abandon their allegiance to the King or go within the British lines. Hundreds joined his standard in consequence. From that encampment he sent out armed parties, who confined the British in New Jersey to three points on the sea-shore of the State, and the commonwealth was pretty thoroughly purged of Toryism before the spring. The ranks of his army were rapidly filled by volunteers; and when the campaign opened in June, his force, which numbered about 8,000 when he left headquarters at Morristown in May, had swelled to 14,000. He had maintained through the winter and spring a line of cantonments from the Delaware River to the Hudson Highlands. Washington and his army again encamped at Morristown in the winter of 1779–80. In 1777 his headquarters were at Freeman's Tavern; in 1780 he occupied as such the fine mansion in the suburbs of the village belonging to the widow Ford. The building was purchased several years ago for the purpose of preserving it, by a patriotic association, which has gathered within it a large and interesting collection of Revolutionary relics.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT MORRISTOWN, IN 1850

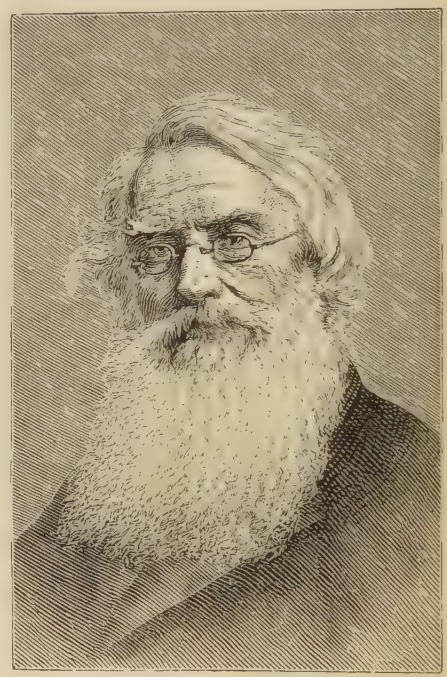
Morse, EDWARD SYLVESTER, educator; born in Portland, Me., June 18, 1838; studied under Professor Agassiz at the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard; was Professor of Comparative Anatomy and Zoology in Bowdoin College in 1871–74; and Professor of Zoology in the Imperial University at Tokio, Japan, in 1877–80. He is an authority on Japanese ceramics, and a member of the National Academy of Sciences, the American Association for the Advancement of Science,

the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and other scientific organizations. He is the author of *Japanese Homes and Their Surroundings; First Book of Zoology*, and numerous papers on zoology, ethnology, and archæology.

Morse, JEDIDIAH, theologian and geographer; born in Woodstock, Conn., Aug. 23, 1761; graduated at Yale College in 1783, and was installed pastor of the First Congregational Church at Charlestown, Mass., in 1789. In the twenty-third year of his age he prepared a small geography, which was the first ever published in America. This was followed by larger geographies and gazetteers of the United States, with the help of Jeremy Belknap, the historian, Thomas Hutchins, the geographer, and Ebenezer Hazen. For thirty years Mr. Morse was without an important competitor in this field of literature, and translations of his works were made into the French and German languages. Dr. Morse was a life-long polemical theologian, and combated Unitarianism in New England most sturdily. In 1805 he established the *Panoplist*, and was prominent in founding the Andover Theological Seminary. His persistent opposition to liberalism in religion brought upon him much persecution, which affected his naturally delicate health, and he resigned his pastoral charge in 1820. In 1822 he was commissioned by the government to visit the Indian tribes on the Northwestern frontiers. He published (1804) *A Compendious History of New England;* and in 1824 a *History of the American Revolution.* He also published twenty-five special sermons. He died in New Haven, June 9, 1826.

Morse, JOHN TORREY, author; born in Boston, Mass., Jan. 9, 1840; graduated at Howard College in 1860; lecturer on history there in 1876–79. His publications include *Treatise on the Law Relating to Banks and Banking; Law of Arbitration and Award; Famous Trials; Life of Alexander Hamilton; Life and Letters of Oliver Wendell Holmes; Abraham Lincoln; John Quincy Adams; Thomas Jefferson; John Adams; Benjamin Franklin*, etc.

Morse, SAMUEL FINLEY BREESE, artist and inventor; born in Charlestown, Mass., April 27, 1791; was son of Jedidiah Morse; graduated at Yale College in 1810, and went to England with Washington Allston in 1811, where he studied painting under Benjamin West. In 1813 he received the gold medal of the Adelphi Society of Arts for an original model of



SAMUEL FINLEY BREESE MORSE.

a *Dying Hercules*, his first attempt in sculpture. On his return home in 1815 he practised painting, chiefly in portraiture, in Boston, Charleston (S. C.), and in New York, where, in 1824–25, he laid the foundation of the National Academy of Design, organized in 1826, of which he was the first president, and in which place he continued for sixteen years. While he was abroad the second time (1829–32), he was elected Professor of the Literature of the Arts of Design in the University of the City of New York.

Previous to his leaving home he had become familiar with the subject of electromagnetism by intimate personal intercourse with Prof. James Freeman Dana. On his return passage from Europe in 1832 in the ship *Sully*, in conversation with others concerning recent electric and

magnetic experiments in France, Professor Morse conceived the idea of an electro-magnetic and chemical recording telegraph as it now exists. Before the close of that year, a part of the apparatus was constructed in New York. In 1835 he had a mile of telegraph wire, producing satisfactory results, in a room at the university, and in September, 1837, he exhibited it to some friends. The same year he entered into a contract with A. H. VAIL (*q. v.*), who supplied money for experiments, and made many improvements in the apparatus. Morse filed a caveat at the Patent Office in Washington, and asked Congress to give him pecuniary aid to build an experimental line from that city to Baltimore. A favorable report was made by the House committee, but nothing else was done at that session. With scanty pecuniary means, he struggled on four years longer; and on the last evening of the session of 1842–43 his hopes were extinguished, for 180 bills before his were to be acted upon in the course of a few hours. The next morning he was cheered with the announcement by a young daughter of the commissioner of patents (Ellsworth) that at near the midnight hour Congress had made an appropriation of $30,000. The first news message over the wires was sent on May 1, 1844, from Annapolis to Washington, announcing the nomination of Henry Clay by the Whig convention at Baltimore.

When the line was completed between Washington and Baltimore, Professor Morse, at Washington, sent to his assistant, Henry T. Rogers, in Baltimore, the first message, "What hath God wrought!" suggested by the fair young friend of the inventor. At that time the Democratic National Convention was in session at Baltimore, and the first public message flashed over the completed line was the announcement of the nomination of James K. Polk for President. So was given the assurance that the great experiment had resulted in a perfect demonstration not only of the marvellous ability, but of the immense value, of the discovery and invention. With that perception came violations of the inventor's rights, and for a long series of years most vexatious and expensive litigation.

But Morse triumphed everywhere, and he received most substantial testimonials of the profound respect which his great discovery and invention had won for him. In 1846 Yale College conferred on him the degree of LL.D., and in 1848 the Sultan of Turkey gave him the decoration of the *Nishan Iftikar*. Gold medals for scientific merit were given him by the King of Prussia, the King of Würtemberg, and the Emperor of Austria. In 1856 he received from the Emperor of the French the cross of Chevalier of the Legion of Honor. In 1857 the King of Denmark gave him the cross of Knight Commander of the first class of the Danebrog. In 1858 the Queen of Spain presented him the cross of Knight Commander of the Order of Isabella the Catholic; the King of Italy gave him the cross of SS. Maurice and Lazarus, and from the King of Portugal he received the cross of the Order of the Tower and the Sword. A banquet was given him in London (1856) by British telegraph companies, and in Paris (1858) by the American colony, representing nearly every State in the Union. In the latter part of that year, after a telegraphic cable had been laid under the Atlantic Ocean (see ATLANTIC TELEGRAPH), representatives of France, Russia, Sweden, Belgium, Holland, Austria, Sardinia, Tuscany, the Papal States, and Turkey met in Paris, at the suggestion of the Emperor of the French, and voted to him about $80,000 in gold as a personal reward for his labors. In 1868 (Dec. 29) the citizens of New York gave him a public dinner, and in 1871 a bronze statue of him was erected in Central Park, N. Y., by the voluntary contributions of telegraph employés. William Cullen Bryant unveiled the statue in June, 1871, and that evening, at a public reception of the inventor at the Academy of Music, Professor Morse, with one of the instruments first employed on the Baltimore and Washington line, sent a message of greeting to all the cities of the continent, and to several in the Eastern Hemisphere. The last public act performed by Professor Morse was the unveiling of the bronze statue of Franklin in Printing House Square, New York, Jan. 17, 1872. Professor Morse made the acquaintance of Daguerre in Paris in 1839, and from drawings furnished him by the latter he constructed the first daguerro-

type apparatus and took the first "sun-pictures" ever made in America. Some of the first plates are now in the possession of Vassar College. He died in New York City, April 2, 1872.

Morse, SIDNEY EDWARDS, journalist; born in Charlestown, Mass., Feb. 7, 1794; brother of Samuel F. B.; graduated at Yale College in 1811, and in the next two years he wrote a series of newspaper articles against the multiplication of new States in the South. He studied law in Litchfield, Conn., and in 1815 established the Boston *Recorder*, the first religious newspaper issued in America. He prepared a geography for schools; and in 1823, in connection with his younger brother (Richard Cary), he founded the New York *Observer*, the oldest weekly newspaper in New York City. In 1834 he invented a process for making maps and outline pictures to be printed topographically, which he named cerography. It was first used in making a geography for schools, of which more than 100,000 copies were printed and disposed of the first year. The last years of his life were devoted to the inventing and perfecting of a bathometer for rapid explorations of the depths of the sea. He died in New York City, Dec. 24, 1871.

Mortar, a short cannon with a large bore and short chamber for throwing bombs; said to have been used at Naples in 1435, and first made in England in 1543. On Oct. 19, 1857, a colossal mortar, constructed by Robert Mallet, was tried at Woolwich, England; with a charge of 70 pounds it threw a shell weighing 2,550 pounds 1½ miles horizontally, and about ¾ of a mile in height.

Morton, or **Mourt,** GEORGE, author; born in York, England, in 1585; became a Puritan in 1600; settled in Leyden, Holland, and acted as agent for the Puritans in London till 1620. He then went to New England, taking reinforcements to the Pilgrims in Plymouth. He was the author of *Mourt's Relation of the Beginning and Proceeding of the English Plantation settled at Plymouth in New England.* He died about 1628.

Morton, HENRY, physicist; born in New York City, Dec. 11, 1837; graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1857; took a post-graduate course in chemistry, and studied law; became instructor in chemistry and physics in the Protestant Episcopal Academy of Philadelphia; chosen resident secretary of the Franklin Institute in 1864; was a founder of the Philadelphia Dental College, and its first Professor of Chemistry; Professor of Physics and Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania in 1867–68, and of Chemistry alone in 1869–70; and was chosen president of Stevens Institute of Technology, in Hoboken, N. J., in 1870. In 1868 he organized and conducted the expedition to observe and photograph the total solar eclipse in Iowa; in 1873 was elected a member of the National Academy of Science; in 1878–86 was a member of the United States light-house board, succeeding Prof. Joseph Henry. Dr. Morton is widely known as an expert in questions relating to chemistry, electricity, and other branches of physics. He edited the *Journal of the Franklin Institute* in 1867–70, and, besides many researches in chemistry and physics, has published a translation of the trilingual hieroglyphic inscription of the Rosetta stone, and with Prof. A. R. Leeds, *The Student's Practical Chemistry.* He gave $67,000 towards the endowment of Stevens Institute, and in 1900 a power-house for the new Carnegie Laboratory. He died in New York City, May 9, 1902.

Morton, JAMES ST. CLAIR, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Sept. 24, 1829; graduated at West Point in 1851; and was employed by Congress to explore a railroad route across the Isthmus, in Central America, through the Chiriqui country in 1860. He superintended the fortifying of the Tortugas in March, 1861, and was made chief engineer of the Army of the Ohio in May, 1862. Rosecrans placed him in command of the pioneer brigade late in that year, and he rendered efficient service in the battle of Stone River. He was wounded at Chickamauga; was chief engineer of the 9th Army Corps in the Richmond campaign in 1864; and was killed while leading an attack on Petersburg, June 17, 1864. General Morton was author of a *Manual on Fortifications* and other engineering works.

Morton, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence; born in Ridley, Pa., in 1724; was of Swedish descent. A well-

educated man, he was for many years member of the Assembly of Pennsylvania, and its speaker from 1772 to 1775. He

LEVI PARSONS MORTON.

was a delegate to the STAMP ACT CONGRESS (*q. v.*) in 1765, and became a judge of the Supreme Court of the province. Mr. Morton was a member of the Continental Congress from 1774 to 1776, and voted for the Declaration of Independence. He assisted in the first formation of the Articles of Confederation, and died in April, 1777.

Morton, JULIUS STERLING, agriculturist; born in Adams, N. Y., April 22, 1832; graduated at Union College in 1854; removed to Nebraska City; was the originator of ARBOR DAY (*q. v.*); acting governor of Nebraska in 1858; and Secretary of the Department of Agriculture in 1893. He died at Lake Forest, Ill., April 27, 1902.

Morton, LEVI PARSONS, banker; born in Shoreham, Vt., May 16, 1824, and settled in New York City in 1854. He founded the banking-house of Morton, Bliss & Co., in New York City, and that of Morton, Rose & Co., in London, in 1863, firms that were active in the syndicates that negotiated United States bonds, and in the payment of the Geneva award of $15,500,000, and the Halifax fishery award of $5,500,000. Besides attaining wealth as a banker, he took interest in politics, and was Republican Congressman from New York in 1879–81. In the latter year he accepted from President Garfield the appointment of minister to France, where he remained until 1885, exerting his influence, among other duties, to secure the entrance into France of American pork products. The nomination of Benjamin Harrison for President in 1888 called for the selection of a New-Yorker for the second place on the ticket. Mr. Morton received the nomination, was elected, and served from 1889 to 1893. He was governor of New York in 1895–97.

Morton, NATHANIEL, historian, born in Leyden, Holland, in 1613; came to America in 1623, and was secretary of the Plymouth colony from 1647 until his death, June 29, 1685. His *New England Memorial* was prepared chiefly from the manuscripts of his uncle, GOV. WILLIAM BRADFORD (*q. v.*). It relates chiefly to the history of the Plymouth colony. In 1680 he wrote a history of the church at Plymouth.

Morton, OLIVER PERRY, war governor; born in Saulsbury, Wayne co., Ind., Aug. 4, 1823; was educated at the Miami University, and admitted to the bar in 1847. In 1852 he was appointed judge of the Fifth Judicial District of Indiana, and was elected lieutenant-governor in 1860. He became governor in 1861, and in that office, during the whole Civil War, performed services of inestimable value. He issued his first war message, April 25, 1861, and from that time he labored incessantly for the salvation of the republic. In 1867 he was elected United States Senator. He was appointed minister to England in

OLIVER PERRY MORTON

September, 1870, but declined the office. He died in Indianapolis, Ind., Nov. 1, 1877.

Morton, PAUL, executive officer; born in Detroit, Mich., May 22, 1857; son of J. Sterling Morton, ex-Secretary of Agriculture; entered the employ of the Burlington Railroad Company in 1872 as a clerk, remaining with that company till 1899, when he engaged in the coal and iron business; became third vice-president of the Sante Fe Railroad Company in 1896, and second vice-president in 1898. In August, 1904, he was appointed Secretary of the Navy. He resigned July, 1905.

Morton, SAMUEL GEORGE, physician; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 26, 1799. As early as 1834 he went to the West Indies to study ethnology. In 1840 he was president of the Academy of Natural Sciences at Philadelphia. His *Crania Americana* and *Crania Egyptica* are standard works on ethnology. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., May 15, 1851.

Morton, THOMAS. See SALEM.

Morton, WILLIAM THOMAS GREEN, dentist; born in Charlton, Mass., Aug. 9, 1819. After studying dentistry in Baltimore in 1840, he settled in Boston in 1842, where, while attending lectures at a medical college, he conceived the idea that sulphuric ether might be used to alleviate pain. Assured of its safety by experiments on himself, he first administered it successfully in his dental practice Sept. 30, 1846, extracting a firmly rooted tooth without pain. At the request of Dr. John C. Warren, ether was administered to a man in the Massachusetts General Hospital, from whose groin a vascular tumor was removed while the patient was unconscious. Dr. Morton obtained a patent for his discovery in November, 1846, under the name of "Letheon," offering, however, free rights to all charitable institutions; but the government appropriated his discovery to its use without compensation. Other claimants arose, notably Dr. Charles T. Jackson and Horace Wells, and he suffered great persecution in private and before Congress. His business was ruined, and at the end of eight years of ineffectual struggle to procure from Congress remuneration for his discovery he and his family were left in poverty. Honorable medical men of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia assigned to Dr. Morton the credit of the great discovery —"the most important benefaction ever made by man to the human race"—and

said so by signing an appeal for a national testimonial to him. He died in New York City, July 15, 1868, and the same year a monument was erected in the Public Gardens, Boston, to perpetuate his discovery.

Mosby, JOHN SINGLETON, lawyer; born in Powhatan county, Va., Dec. 6, 1833; graduated at the University of Virginia in 1852, and admitted to the bar in 1855. He practised at Bristol, Va., in 1855–61. In the latter year he entered the Confederate army as a private, but a little later became adjutant of the 1st Virginia Cavalry. He was colonel in 1862–65 of Mosby's Partisan Rangers, an independent cavalry command, which caused the Union army much trouble by destroying supply trains, cutting communications, capturing outposts, etc. After the war he resumed the practice of law in Virginia. In 1878–85 he was United States consul at Hong-Kong, and in the latter year he settled in San Francisco. He is author of *War Reminiscences.*

Moses, BERNARD, author; born in Burlington, Conn., Aug. 27, 1846; graduated at the University of Michigan in 1870; became Professor of History and Political Economy in the University of California

in 1876, member of the Philippine Commission in 1900. He is the author of *Federal Government in Switzerland; Democracy and Social Growth in America; Establishment of Spanish Rule in America;* etc.

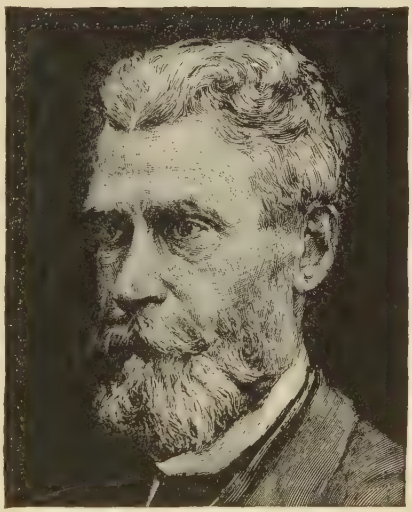
Mosquito Coast, a region of Central America, lying east of the state of Nicaragua, with a coast-line of about 250 miles on the Caribbean Sea. The Indians of this coast were long under protection of the British, who held Belize and a group of islands in the Bay of Honduras. The jealousy of the United States was aroused. In April, 1850, the two governments covenanted not "to occupy or fortify or colonize, or assume or exercise any dominion over, any part of Central America." In 1855 the United States charged the British government with infraction of the treaty; but the latter agreed to cede the disputed territory to Honduras, with some reservation. Subsequently there was considerable friction between the United States and the British authorities, chiefly growing out of commercial affairs; Great Britain took Chief Clarence under its protection; and in 1894 the Mosquito Reservation was annexed to the republic of Nicaragua under the name of the Department of Zelaya. See NICARAGUA.

Mother Ann. See LEE, ANN.

Mother Goose, the alleged author of a collection of popular nursery rhymes. Mrs. Goose was of a wealthy family in Boston, Mass. Her eldest daughter married Thomas Fleet, an enterprising printer, and Mrs. Goose lived with them. When their first child was born she was delighted, and spent nearly the whole time in singing songs and ditties which she had learned in her youth, to please the baby. The unmusical sounds annoyed everybody, and especially Fleet, who loved quiet. He remonstrated, coaxed, scolded, and ridiculed, but in vain. He could not suppress the old lady; so he resolved to turn the annoyance to account by gathering up and publishing the songs, ditties, and nonsensical jingles of his mother-in-law, and punishing her by attaching her name to them. In 1719 they were published in "Pudding Lane" (afterwards Devonshire Street), Boston, with the title of *Songs for the Nursery; or, Mother Goose's Melodies for Children.*

Mother of Presidents, a name popularly given to Virginia, which has furnished six Presidents of the United States—namely, Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Harrison, and Taylor. It is also called "Mother of States," as it was the first settled of the original thirteen States that formed the Union.

Motley, JOHN LOTHROP, historian and diplomatist; born in Dorchester, Mass., April 15, 1814; graduated at Harvard University in 1831, and afterwards spent a year at the universities of Göttingen and Berlin; travelled in Italy, and, returning, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1836. He wrote two historical novels—



JOHN LOTHROP MOTLEY.

Master's Hope (1839) and *Merry Mount* (1849). In 1840 he was secretary to the American legation in Russia; in 1861–67 minister to Austria; and in 1869–70 minister to Great Britain. He became interested in the history of Holland, and embarked for Europe in 1851 to gather materials for his great work, *The History of the Rise of the Dutch Republic,* which was published in London and New York in 1856. In 1861 he published *The United Netherlands* (2 volumes, enlarged to 4 volumes in 1867). This work was followed, in 1874, by *The Life and Death of John of Barneveld, Advocate of Holland, with a View of the*

Primary Causes of the Thirty Years' War. On his recall from London he revisited Holland in pursuit of historical studies. He afterwards went to England, where he died near Dorchester, May 29, 1877.

Mott, GERSHOM, military officer; born near Trenton, N. J., April 7, 1822; was a second lieutenant in the 10th United States Infantry in the war with Mexico. He was lieutenant-colonel of the 5th New Jersey Volunteers that hastened to the field in 1861, and, as colonel, served with distinction in the campaign on the Peninsula. He was promoted brigadier-general in September, 1862, and was wounded in the battle of Manassas. At Chancellorsville he commanded a New Jersey brigade in Sickles's division, and was again wounded. He also distinguished himself in the battle of Gettysburg. In the operations before Petersburg in 1864–65 he commanded a division of the 3d Corps, and while in pursuit of Lee was again wounded. After the war he was major-general commanding the National Guard of New Jersey, State treasurer, and keeper of the State prison. He died in New York City, May 29, 1884.

Mott, JAMES, philanthropist; born in North Hempstead, L. I., June 20, 1788; removed to Philadelphia, where he engaged in mercantile business. He was one of the organizers of the National Anti-slavery Society in 1833; a member of the Society of Friends; and was interested in the Friends' College in Swarthmore, Pa. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Jan. 26, 1868.

Mott, LUCRETIA, reformer; born in Nantucket, Mass., Jan. 3, 1793. In 1818 she became a preacher among the Friends, a most earnest advocate of temperance, pleaded for the freedom of the slaves, and was one of the active founders of the American Anti-slavery Society in Philadelphia in 1833. She died in Philadelphia, Pa., Nov. 11, 1880.

Mott, VALENTINE, surgeon; born in Glen Cove, Long Island, N. Y., Aug. 20, 1785; studied medicine and surgery in London and Edinburgh, and on his return in 1809 was appointed to the chair of surgery in Columbia College, and subsequently in the College of Physicians and Surgeons of New York, and the Rutgers Medical College. The eminent Sir Astley Cooper said: "Dr. Mott has performed more of the great operations than any man living or that ever did live." He died in New York City, April 26, 1865.

Motte, ISAAC, military officer; born in South Carolina, Dec. 8, 1738; acquired a military education; served in Canada, and later in the Revolutionary War. In July, 1775, as lieutenant-colonel, he landed on James Island with a part of a regiment, and took possession of Fort Johnson; and was second in command at Fort Moultrie. He was a member of the Continental Congress from South Carolina in 1780–82, and of the State convention that ratified the Constitution of the United States; and later was naval officer at the port of Charleston. He died in South Carolina, May 8, 1795.

FORT MOTTE.
(From an old sketch.)

Motte, REBECCA, heroine; daughter of Mr. Brewton, an Englishman; married Jacob Motte, a South Carolina planter, in 1758, and was the mother of six children. Left a widow of fortune at about the beginning of the Revolutionary War, she resided in a fine mansion near the Santee River, from which she was driven by the British, who fortified the building and named it Fort Motte. Marion and Lee approached with a considerable force, but having no artillery, could not dislodge the garrison. What was to be done had to be done quickly, for other posts required their attention. Only by setting the house on fire could the British be driven out. To this method Mrs. Motte gave her cheerful assent. She brought an Indian bow and arrows. To the latter lighted combustibles were affixed, and an expert fired the arrows into the roof of the dwelling. It was soon in a blaze, when the garrison were compelled to sally out and surrender. The

patriotic owner then regaled both American and British officers at her table.

Moulton, Joseph White, historian; born in Stratford, Conn., in June, 1789; practised law in Buffalo and in New York City; and afterwards removed to Roslyn, N. Y., where he engaged entirely in historical research. His publications include *A History of the State of New York* (with John V. N. Yates); *Chancery Practice of New York; View of the City of New Orange as it was in 1673*, etc. He died in Roslyn, N. Y., April 20, 1875.

Moulton, Louise Chandler, author; born in Pomfret, Conn., April 10, 1835; married William U. Moulton in 1855. Her writings include *This, That, and the Other; Juno Clifford; Firelight Stories; Ourselves and Our Neighbors; Miss Eyre from Boston and Others; In the Garden of Dreams* (poems); *Random Rambles; Lazy Tours in Spain and Elsewhere*, etc. She edited the *Last Harvest* and *Garden Secrets*, and the collected poems (with biography) of Philip Bourke. She also edited a volume of selections from Arthur O'Shaughnessy, with a biographical sketch.

Moultrie, William, military officer; born in South Carolina in 1731; was captain of infantry in the Cherokee War;

WILLIAM MOULTRIE.

member of the Provincial Congress from St. Helena parish in 1775, and was made colonel of the 2d South Carolina Regiment in June of that year. He gained great fame by his defence of Fort Sullivan (see Charleston), in Charleston Harbor. In September, 1776, he was made a brigadier-general. He was engaged in the local service, and in May, 1779, with 1,000 militia, opposed the advance of Prevost upon Charleston, which he held until Lincoln relieved him. He was distinguished at the siege of Charleston in 1780, was made a prisoner, and remained so until 1782, when he was exchanged for Burgoyne. While a prisoner he wrote his *Mémoirs*, published in 1802. In October of that year, he was promoted major-general, and was governor of South Carolina in 1785–86 and 1794–96. He died in Charleston, S. C., Sept. 27, 1805.

Moultrie, Fort, Seizure of. Major Anderson abandoned weaker Fort Moultrie, and went to stronger Fort Sumter, on the evening of Dec. 26, 1860. He left officers and men to spike the guns, burn the carriages, and cut down the flag-staff, that no other banner might occupy the place of the national flag. The bewildered citizens of Charleston saw the smoke of the burning carriages at dawn, and when they knew its origin, the disunionists were greatly exasperated. The Secession convention requested Governor Pickens to take possession of the government property in and around Charleston. The arsenal, into which Floyd had crowded arms, was seized in the name of the State of South Carolina, and thus 70,000 stand of arms and a vast amount of stores, valued at $500,000, were placed in the hands of the enemies of the government. Men of Charleston, equipped with these weapons, went in two armed steam-vessels and seized Castle Pinckney (which was surrendered by its commander, N. L. Coste), and took possession of dismantled Fort Moultrie in the name of "the sovereign State of South Carolina." The fort was strengthened, new breastworks were constructed, and heavy guns were mounted.

Mound-builders, the name given to an unknown people who inhabited the central portion of North America at an unknown period in its history. They have left traces of agriculture and skill in arts, and evidences of having attained to a considerable degree of civilization. All over the continent between the great range of

hills extending from the northern part of Vermont far towards the Gulf of Mexico and the Rocky Mountains, traces of this mysterious people are found in the remains of earthworks, exceedingly numerous, especially in the region northward

The evidently military works sometimes occupy hundreds of acres of land, and consist of circumvallations. On these walls ancient forest trees are now growing. The sepulchral mounds are sometimes 60 feet in height, and always contain human re-

GREAT EARTHWORK NEAR NEWARK.

of the Ohio River. These consist of, evidently, military works, places of sepulture, places of sacrifice, and mounds in the forms of animals, such as the buffalo, eagle, turtle, serpent, lizard, alligator, etc. It is estimated that more than 10,000 mounds and more than 2,000 earth enclosures are in the State of Ohio alone.

One of the most interesting of these earth-enclosures is near Newark, in the midst of the primeval forest. It is composed of a continuous mound that sweeps in a perfect circle a mile in circumference, broken only by the entrance to it, as seen in the foreground of the engraving, where the banks, higher than elsewhere, turn outward for 50 feet or more, and form a magnificent gateway. The embankment averages 15 or 20 feet in height, and is covered with beech, maple, and hickory trees of every size, indicating the origin of the structure to be far more remote than the advent of the Europeans in America. The ditch from which the earth was thrown is within the embankment, extending entirely around it, showing that the work was not a fortification. In the centre of the area (which is perfectly level and covered with forest trees) is a slight elevation, in the form of a spread-eagle, covering many yards, which is called the Eagle Mound.

mains, accompanied by earthen vessels and copper trinkets. Some of the vessels exhibit considerable skill in the art of design. In some of these have been found the charred remains of human bodies, showing that these people practised cremation. The sacrificial mounds, on which temples probably stood, are truncated pyramids, with graded approaches to the tops, like those found by the Spaniards in Central America and Mexico. The animal mounds usually rise only a few feet above the surface of the surrounding country. Some of these cover a large area, but conjecture is puzzled in endeavoring to determine their uses. The great Serpent Mound, in Adams county, O., is 1,000 feet in length; and in Licking county, O., is Alligator Mound, 250 feet in length and 50 feet in breadth. The Grave Creek Sepulchral Mound, not far from Wheeling, W. Va., is 70 feet in height and 900 feet in circumference.

The great age of these sepulchral mounds is attested, not only by the immense forest trees that grow upon them, but by the condition of human bones found in them, which do not admit of their removal, as they crumble into dust on exposure to the air. Bones in British tumuli, or mounds, older than the Christian era, are frequently taken out and re-

main entire. The supposed military works, more than any others, show the forecast of the soldier and the skill of the engineer. Their works of circumvallation also show a degree of mathematical knowledge very remarkable. These are usually upon table-lands, and often extend, in groups, several miles, but are connected with each other. The groups are made up of squares, circles, and other mathematical figures, which range from 250 to 300 feet in diameter to a mile in circuit. Among the groups of circumvallating mounds are sometimes seen traces of avenues of imposing width, passing between embankments several feet in height, and often connected with the enclosed area. The squares and circles in these works are perfect squares and circles, and their immense size implies much engineering skill in their construction. They all show some fixed and general design, for works scores of miles apart seem to indicate a common geometrical rule in their construction.

In Ohio, a square and two circles are often found combined, and they usually agree in this, that each of the sides of the squares measures exactly 1,080 feet, and the adjacent circles 1,700 and 800 feet, respectively. The moats, or ditches, found on the inside of these works indicate that they were not intended as defences, but may have been the enclosures of public parks, or the boundaries of grounds held sacred by a superstitious and religious people. The mounds are divided by expert explorers into altar or sacrificial mounds, sepulchral mounds, temple mounds, mounds of observation, and animal mounds. In the mounds, pottery, bronze, and stone axes, copper bracelets, bronze knives, flint arrow-points, and various other implements, belonging to the arts of both peace and war, are found.

Near the shores of Lake Superior are evidences of ancient mining for copper, of which the present race of Indians have no traditions. In a filled trench, 18 feet below the surface of the ground, was found a mass of copper weighing about 8 tons, raised upon a frame of wood 5 feet high, preparatory to removal. From these mines the ancient people, 1,000 miles away, evidently obtained their copper for making their implements and ornaments. In their pottery, and especially in their clay pipe-bowls, may be seen figures of animals and of the heads of men, made with striking fidelity to nature. In the representations of the human head there is observed a noticeable similarity between those of the northern mound-builders and the sculptured heads found among the ruins in Yucatan. They have the same remarkable recession of the forehead and general facial angle. The Aztecs found in Mexico by Cortez, and the ancient Peruvians, whose empire was ruined by Pizarro, may have been the remains of the mound-building race, who, by some unknown circumstances, had been compelled to abandon their more northern homes and give place to a wild and savage race of invaders.

Mount Vernon Ladies' Association. The Washington estate at Mount Vernon, Virginia, is under the care and direction of the Mount Vernon Ladies' Association of the Union. The founder of the association, in 1854, was Miss Ann Pamela Cunningham, of South Carolina. She was the first regent, and was succeeded in 1873 by Mrs. Macalester Laughton, and in 1891 by Mrs. Justine Van Rensselaer Townsend, of New York (a great-granddaughter of Gen. Philip Schuyler, and great-great-granddaughter of Philip Livingston, the signer of the Declaration of Independence). There are vice-regents for the separate States. See also page 307.

Mountain Meadow Massacre. Early in September, 1857, a party of immigrants known as "the Arkansas Company" arrived in Utah from the East, on their way to California. One of the Mormons, named Laney, then living in Utah, had given some food to two of the immigrants, and this came to the ears of certain leading "saints." It appears that Laney had some time previously been a Mormon missionary, and had labored in the interest of his sect in Tennessee, where he was assailed by a mob. He was rescued by two men, father and son, named Aden, and found his way back to Utah. The two men to whom he had given food out of gratitude were the Adens. For this act Laney was murdered by an "angel of death" at the instigation of a Mormon bishop. While the immigrant company were on their way West, the Mormon leaders,

among whom were Bishop Dame (who instigated, as Lee claimed, the murder of Laney), George A. Smith (then first counsellor of the Church and Brigham Young's right-hand man), and another Mormon dignitary named Haight, as well as John D. Lee, conspired to massacre the entire party. The "saints" claimed that immigrants who had passed through Utah en route to California had on several occasions treated them and their people with indignities, had stolen or destroyed their property, and had given the Mormons just cause of complaint. The followers of Young and his bishops and head men had won over to their interests the Indians residing near and among them, and had sent out Mormon runners, who gathered in the Indians to the number of several hundred to aid them in the butchery. Under the lead of the Mormons the Indians attacked the immigrants, killing some and wounding many more. Then there was a lull in the fight. The immigrants had defended themselves behind their wagons and in pits thrown hastily up in their camp. Then it was urged among the Mormon leaders, who held a council of war, that the immigrants be starved out, but the majority were for carrying out orders which were said to have been dictated by Brigham Young himself. It was arranged that there be a flag of truce, the Indians to be kept quiet until this was accomplished. The pilgrims responded to this, and were advised by the Mormons to put away their arms in their wagons and move to another point. This they did. The road they were to take was marked out, and the Mormons and Indians were secreted along the trail behind rocks and within easy range of the passing wagons. When the unsuspecting company were driving past they were halted by their Mormon guides, the Indians and the rest of the Mormons rushed in upon them, and despatched them, man, woman, and child. Only a few children escaped. The wagons of the unfortunates were emptied, the bodies of the slain were stripped and left nude for the time, and later were thrown into shallow graves in a ravine near by. The remains were soon scented by the wolves and were unearthed and made a horrid repast. When the military found the bones they gave them a decent burial, and some one carved on a rude stone raised over the graves the words: "Vengeance is Mine! I will repay, saith the Lord." On March 23, 1877, John D. Lee, who had become a bishop of the Mormon Church, was, after capture, trial, and condemnation, executed by shooting, by military authority, on the scene of the massacre in 1857. The foregoing narrative of the massacre is compiled from the confession of Lee, while awaiting execution.

Mount Desert Island. In 1613 Samuel Argall, a sort of freebooter from Virginia, visited the coast of Maine, ostensibly for fishing; but his vessel carried several pieces of artillery. Hearing that

MOUNT DESERT ISLAND FROM BLUE HILL BAY.

French Jesuits were on Pemetig or Mount Desert Island, he went there and attacked a French vessel that lay at anchor, which, after firing one gun, was compelled to surrender. Du Thet, who discharged the gun, was mortally wounded. The other Jesuits there remonstrated with Argall when he landed and began to search the tents. He broke open the desk of the Jesuit leader, took out and destroyed his commission, and then, pretending that they were within English jurisdiction, without authority, he turned more than a dozen of the little colony loose upon the ocean in an open boat, to seek Port Royal, in Acadia. Two fishing vessels picked them up and carried them to France. The remainder were carried to Virginia, and there lodged in prison and badly treated. Argall's conduct was approved in Virginia, and he was sent back to destroy all the settlements in Acadia. See ACADIA, and ARGALL, SAMUEL.

Mount Vernon Threatened. In July, 1776, when Governor Dunmore was driven from Gwyn's Island, he ascended the Potomac as far as Occoquan and burned the mills there. The Virginia militia repulsed him. It is supposed his chief destination was Mount Vernon, a few miles above, which he intended to lay waste, and seize Mrs. Washington as a hostage. The British frigates, after they entered Chesapeake Bay, in the spring of 1781, ascended the Potomac and levied contributions upon all the tide-water counties. They menaced Mount Vernon, and, to save the buildings, Washington's manager consented to furnish a supply of provisions. In a letter to his manager Washington reproved him for the act. "It would have been a less painful circumstance to me to have heard that, in consequence of your non-compliance with their request, they had burned my house and laid the plantation in ruins. You ought to have considered yourself as my representative, and should have reflected on the bad example of communicating with the enemy and making a voluntary offer of refreshments to them with a view to prevent a conflagration. . . . I am fully persuaded that you acted from your best judgment, and believe that your desire to preserve my property and rescue the buildings from impending danger was your governing motive; but to go on board their vessels, carry them refreshments, commune with a parcel of scoundrels, and request a favor by asking a surrender of my negroes was exceedingly ill-judged, and, it is to be feared, will be unhappy in its consequences, as it will be a precedent for others and may become a subject of animadversion."

Mower, JOSEPH ANTHONY, military officer; born in Woodstock, Vt., Aug. 22, 1827; was a private in an engineer company in the Mexican War, and entered the United States army as lieutenant in 1855. He was made captain in 1861, and was prominent in the battle of ISLAND NUMBER TEN (*q. v.*). He was conspicuous at other places; was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers in November, 1862; commanded a brigade in front of Vicksburg in 1863; and a division under Banks in the Red River expedition in 1864; promoted major-general of volunteers in August, 1864, and was placed in command of the 20th Corps. In July, 1866, he was commissioned colonel in the United States army, and was brevetted brigadier-general and major-general in the same. He died in New Orleans, La., Jan. 6, 1870.

Mowry, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, educator; born in Uxbridge, Mass., Aug. 13, 1829; educated at Brown University; served in the National army in 1862–63 in the 11th Rhode Island Infantry. After the war he interested himself in educational matters; was editor of several educational publications; and became widely known as a lecturer on the same subject. His publications include *Elements of Civil Government; A History of the United States; First Steps in the History of our Country,* etc.

Moylan, STEPHEN, soldier; born in Ireland in 1734; was a brother of the Roman Catholic Bishop of Cork; was appointed aide-de-camp to Washington in March, 1776, and commissary-general in June. Resigning that post, early in 1777, he commanded a regiment of light dragoons, serving in the battle at Germantown, with Wayne in Pennsylvania, and with Greene in the South. In November, 1783, he was brevetted brigadier-general. In 1792 he was register and recorder of Chester county, Pa., and was commissioner of loans for the district of

Pennsylvania. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., April 11, 1811.

Mud Campaign. See FREDERICKSBURG, BATTLE OF.

"Mud-sills," a name applied to citizens of Northern States in a speech by Hammond, of South Carolina, in 1858.

Mudge, ZACHARIAH ATWELL, author; born in Orrington, Me., July 2, 1813; educated at the Wesleyan University. In 1840 he became a Methodist clergyman, and held charges in various places in Massachusetts for over forty-five years. His publications include *Sketches of Mission Life among the Indians of Oregon; Witch Hill, a History of Salem Witchcraft; Arctic Heroes; North-Pole Voyages;* etc. He died in 1888.

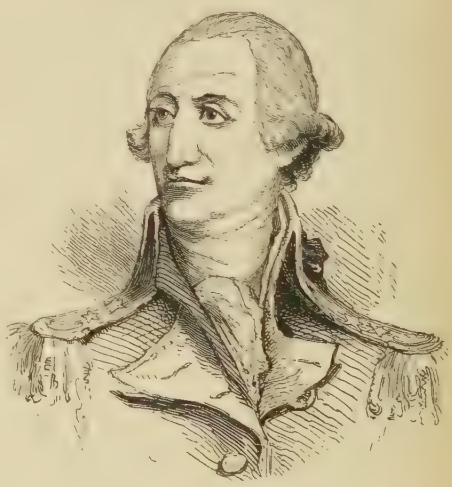
Mugwumps, a term of reproach applied to those Republicans who in the summer of 1884 bolted the nomination of Blaine for President, and supported Cleveland. Their objections to the Republican candidate were founded partly on his conduct of foreign affairs when Secretary of State, and partly on the charges made against his character. The Mugwumps were especially numerous in New England and New York, and in the latter State they contributed signally to the Democratic victory. Afterwards many of them continued to act with the Democracy, or with the "Cleveland Democracy"; others returned to the Republicans. The term soon became applied to all independent voters.

Muhlenberg, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS CONRAD, clergyman; born in Trappe, Pa., June 2, 1750; was a Lutheran minister; took an active part in the Revolutionary movements, and was a member of the Continental Congress (1779–80). He was an active member of the Pennsylvania Assembly, and its speaker from 1781 to 1784; a member of the council and treasurer of the State, and president of the convention that ratified the national Constitution. He was receiver-general of the Land Office, and was speaker of the first and second Congress. In that capacity his casting vote carried Jay's treaty (see JAY, JOHN) into effect. He died in Lancaster, Pa., June 4, 1801.

Muhlenberg, HENRY AUGUSTUS, clergyman; born in Lancaster, Pa., May 13, 1782; was pastor of a Lutheran church at Reading in 1802–28, when, on account of failing health, he left the ministry. He was member of Congress from 1829 to 1838; an unsuccessful candidate of the Democratic party for governor in 1835, and minister to Austria from 1838 to 1840. He died in Reading, Pa., Aug. 11, 1844.

Muhlenberg, HENRY MELCHIOR, clergyman; born in Eimbeck, Hanover, Germany, Sept. 6, 1711; was the patriarch of the Lutheran Church in America, having come to Philadelphia as a missionary in the fall of 1742. He afterwards lived at Trappe, Montgomery co., Pa. He was devoted to the service of building up churches, relieving the destitute, and doing his "Master's business" continually, travelling as far as Georgia. In 1748 he was chiefly instrumental in organizing the first Lutheran synod in America, that of Pennsylvania. He died in Trappe, Pa., Oct. 7, 1787.

Muhlenberg, JOHN PETER GABRIEL, patriot; born in Trappe, Pa., Oct. 1, 1746; was educated at Halle, Germany; ran away, and for a year was a private in a



JOHN PETER GABRIEL MUHLENBERG.

regiment of dragoons; was ordained in 1772, and preached at Woodstock, Va., until the Revolutionary War broke out. One Sunday he told his hearers that there was a time for all things—a time to preach and a time to fight—and that then was the time to fight. Casting off his

gown, he appeared in the regimentals of a Virginia colonel, read his commission as such, and ordered drummers to beat up for recruits. Nearly all the able-bodied men of his parish responded, and became soldiers of the 8th Virginia (German) regiment. He had been an active patriot in civil life, and was efficient in military service. In February, 1777, he was made brigadier-general, and took charge of the Virginia line, under Washington. He was in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth, and was at the capture of Stony Point. He was in chief command in Virginia in 1781, until the arrival of Steuben; and was second in command to Lafayette in resisting the invasion of the State by Cornwallis. At the siege of YORKTOWN (*q. v.*) he commanded a brigade of light infantry, and was made a major-general at the close of the war. Removing to Pennsylvania, he was elected a member of the council, and, in 1785, vice-president of the State. He was a member of Congress much of the time from 1789 to 1801, and in 1801–2 was United States Senator. He was supervisor of the revenue for the district of Pennsylvania, and, in 1803, collector of the port of Philadelphia. He died near Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 1, 1807.

Muir, JOHN, naturalist; born in Dunbar, Scotland, April 21, 1838; was educated in Scotland and at the University of Wisconsin. In 1879 he went to Alaska and located nearly seventy glaciers among the Sierra peaks where the leading geologists thought there were none. He spent twenty years in Alaska and discovered Glacier Bay and the great glacier to which his name has been given. He is the author of *The Mountains of California,* and of about 150 articles on the natural history of the Pacific coast, Alaska, etc., and editor of *Picturesque California.*

John Muir

Mulligan, JAMES A., military officer; born in Utica, N. Y., June 25, 1830; graduated at the University of St. Mary of the Lake, Illinois, in 1850; admitted to the bar in November, 1855. In 1861 he became colonel of the 23d Illinois Volunteers; and in September of that year took command of the Union post at Lexington, Mo., where, after a desperate defence against an attack by General Price, he was compelled to surrender. Later he took command at Camp Douglas, Chicago; in 1864 participated in hard-fought battles in the Shenandoah Valley. He died of wounds in Winchester, Va., July 26, 1864.

Mulligan Letters. James Mulligan, a bookkeeper employed by Warren Fisher, of Boston, got possession of a number of letters written by Blaine to Fisher, which were supposed to show corruption on the part of Blaine. June 5, 1876, Blaine, who meanwhile had got possession of the letters, read them in an open session of Congress, to prove that they were not discreditable to him.

Mumford, WILLIAM B. On April 26, 1862, he hauled down the American flag on the New Orleans mint. General Butler ordered his arrest and trial for treason. He was convicted, and was the only man executed for treason during the Civil War.

Mundy, JOHNSON MARCHANT, sculptor; born near New Brunswick, N. J., May 3, 1832; received a common school education; and first secured employment in a marble-yard in New York City, where he developed much aptitude for both designing and chiselling. In 1854 he entered the studio of Henry K. Brown, the sculptor, who, perceiving his talent, carefully instructed him in the manipulation of clay. He remained with Mr. Brown till 1863, when he settled in Rochester, N. Y. He founded the first school in that city for instruction in modelling and draw-

ing from the antique and from life. His work was handicapped by imperfect eyesight, which gradually grew worse until in 1883 his left eye became entirely useless, and a cataract on the right one dimmed his little remaining sight. After twenty years spent in Rochester, he went to Tarrytown, where he made his most important statues. He there gave his services free to the Grand Army veterans, and in two years executed for them a statue, which was cast in bronze, representing a vidette in the volunteer service of the Union army. It has been said that this is the most spirited and graceful military figure in the United States. He next modelled his heroic statue of Washington Irving, the crowning effort of his life. He died in Tarrytown, N. Y., Aug. 16, 1897.

Munfordsville, Battle at. The Confederates under General Bragg crossed the Cumberland at Lebanon, and entered Kentucky on Sept. 5, 1862. His advance, 8,000 strong, pushed on towards Louisville; and on the 13th two of Buckner's brigades encountered about 2,000 Nationals, under Col. T. J. Wilder, at Munfordsville, where the railway crossed the Green River. There the Nationals had hastily constructed some earthworks. A demand for a surrender being refused, the Confederates drove in the National pickets early the next morning. Then a battle began, which lasted about five hours, when a reinforcement reached Wilder, and the assailants were repulsed with heavy loss. Assured of final success, the Confederates remained quiet until the 16th, when a heavy force under General Polk, not less than 25,000 strong, appeared. Wilder had been reinforced, and, with 4,000 effective men, sustained a battle nearly a whole day, hoping Buell (then at Bowling Green) would send him promised relief. It did not come; and when, at sunset, another demand for surrender was made, and Wilder counted forty-five cannon trained upon his works, he gave up, and at 6 A.M. the next day his troops marched out with the honors of war. Wilder reported his entire loss at thirty-seven killed and wounded. The Confederates admitted a loss of 714 killed and wounded.

Munson, Aeneas, physician; born in New Haven, Conn., June 24, 1734; was an army chaplain in 1755, and began the practice of medicine at Bedford, N. Y., in 1756. In 1760 he removed to New Haven, where he practised his profession more than fifty years. He was a legislator, and a professor in the Medical School of Yale College from its organization. He died in New Haven, Conn.,

Aeneas Munson, Jr.

June 16, 1826. His son Aeneas, who graduated at Yale College in 1780, was assistant surgeon under Dr. Thacher in the Continental army from 1780 to 1783; afterwards became a merchant in New Haven, and died there, Aug. 22, 1852, aged eighty-nine years.

Murat, Napoléon Achille, author; born in Paris, France, Jan. 21, 1801; came to the United States in 1821; travelled here extensively; then settled near Tallahassee, Fla., and was naturalized in 1826. He married a grandniece of Lafayette. He was the author of *Letters of a Citizen of the United States to His Friends in Europe; Moral and Political Essays on the United States of America;* and *Exposition of the Principles of Republican Government as it has been Perfected in America* (which passed through more than fifty editions). He died in Wasceissa, Fla., April 15, 1847.

Murcheson Letter. In October, 1888, Lord Sackville-West, the British minister at Washington, received a letter signed Charles Murcheson, who represented himself as a naturalized citizen of the United

States, of English birth. The writer requested advice for whom to vote at the approaching Presidential election. The advice was given, and the minister's letter was published. Lord Sackville-West's recall was requested, and his passports were sent him.

Murfreesboro, or Stone River, BATTLE OF. As the year 1862 was drawing to a close, General Grant concentrated the bulk of his army at Holly Springs, Miss., where he was confronted by Van Dorn; and at about the same time General Rosecrans, with a greater part of the Army of the Cumberland, moved southward to attack Bragg below Nashville. Rosecrans was assisted by Generals Thomas, McCook, Crittenden, Rousseau, Palmer, Sheridan, J. C. Davis, Wood, Van Cleve, Hazen, Negley, Matthews, and others; and Bragg had Generals Polk, Breckinridge, Hardee, Kirby Smith, Cheatham, Withers, Cleburne, and Wharton. On Dec. 30 the two armies lay within cannon-shot of each other on opposite sides of Stone River, near Murfreesboro, along a line about 3 miles in length. Bragg's superior cavalry force gave him great advantage. On the night of the 30th both armies prepared for battle. Rosecrans had Crittenden on the left, resting on Stone River, Thomas in the centre, and McCook on the right. The troops breakfasted at dawn, and before sunrise Van Cleve—who was to be supported by Wood—crossed the river to make an attack; but Bragg had massed troops, under Hardee, on his left in the dim morning twilight, and four brigades under Cleburne charged furiously upon McCook's extreme right before Van Cleve had moved. The divisions of Cheatham and McCown struck near the centre, and

BATTLE OF MURFREESBORO.

at both points National skirmishers were driven back upon their lines.

Towards these lines the Confederates pressed in the face of a terrible tempest of missiles—losing heavily, but never faltering—and fell with crushing force on the brigades of Willich and Kirk, pressing them back in confusion and capturing two batteries. With equal vigor the Confederates fell upon McCook's left, composed of the divisions of Sheridan and Davis, striking them in the flank. After a very severe struggle these divisions gave way and fell back in good order to the Nashville pike, losing a battery. Every brigade

commander in Sheridan's division had been killed or wounded. It was now eleven o'clock. The National right wing, comprising fully one-third of Rosecrans's army, was broken up, and Bragg's cavalry were in his rear, destroying his trains and picking up his stragglers. Rosecrans, when he heard of the severe pressure on the right, had given orders to Thomas to give aid to Sheridan. Rousseau went with two brigades and a battery to Sheridan's right and rear, but it was too late. Crittenden was ordered to suspend Van Cleve's operations against Breckinridge. It seemed as if the Nationals had lost the day. Thomas, with the centre, while Confederate batteries were playing fearfully upon him, fought the victors over Sheridan and Davis. Negley's division was in the thickest of the battle. His ammunition began to fail, his artillery horses became disabled, and a heavy Confederate column crowded in between him and the right wing. These circumstances caused Thomas to recoil, when Rousseau led his reserves to the front and sent a battalion of regulars under Major Ring to assist Negley. These made a successful charge, and checked the Confederates, but with heavy loss.

The brunt of the battle had now fallen upon Thomas, who, compelled to change his position, took a more advantageous one, where he stood firmly against overwhelming odds. This firmness enabled Rosecrans to readjust the line of battle to the state of affairs. But the dreadful struggle was not over. Palmer had repulsed an assault in his rear, but was attacked with great fury on his front and right flank, which was exposed by Negley's retirement while the new line was being formed. Craft's brigade was forced back, when the Confederates fell upon another, under acting Brigadier-General Hazen, of the 41st Ohio Volunteers, who was posted in a cotton-field. This little brigade, only 1,300 strong, stood firmly in the way of the Confederates, who made desperate but unsuccessful attempts to demolish it. They stayed the tide of victory for the Confederates, which had been flowing steadily forward for hours. Gallantly men fought on both sides, and did not cease until night closed upon the scene. Rosecrans had lost heavily in men and guns, yet he was not disheartened. At a council of officers it was resolved to continue the struggle. Bragg felt confident of final victory, and sent a jubilant despatch to Richmond. He expected Rosecrans would attempt to fly towards Nashville during the night, and was astonished to find the National army before him, in battle order, in the morning. But he attempted very little that day.

On Friday (Jan. 2, 1863) Rosecrans found he had his army well in hand, and in an advantageous position. Bragg had stealthily planted four heavy batteries during the night that would sweep the National lines, and these he opened suddenly in the morning; but they were soon silenced by the guns of Walker and Sheridan, and there was a lull in the storm of battle until the afternoon. Adhering to his original plan of turning Bragg's right and taking possession of Murfreesboro, Rosecrans strengthened Van Cleve's division by one of Palmer's brigades. Suddenly a heavy force of Confederates emerged from a wood and fell upon Van Cleve. It was Breckinridge's entire corps, with ten 12-pounder cannon and 2,000 cavalry. At the same time Van Cleve received a galling enfilading fire from Polk's artillery, near. The Nationals gave way, and were speedily driven in confusion across the river, pursued to the stream by the entire right wing of Bragg's army in three heavy battle-lines. Now Crittenden's artillery, massed along the ground on the opposite side of the river, enfiladed the elated pursuers with fifty-eight heavy guns, while the left of the Nationals prepared for action. These guns cut fearful lanes through the Confederate ranks. At the same time the troops of Davis and Negley pushed forward to retrieve the disaster. A fierce struggle ensued. Both sides had massed their artillery, and for a while it seemed as if mutual annihilation would be the result. Finally Generals Stanley and Miller charged simultaneously and drove the Confederates rapidly before them. This charge decided the question of victory. In twenty minutes the Confederates had lost 2,000 men. At sunset their entire line had fallen back, leaving 400 men captives. Darkness was coming on, and the Nationals did not pursue.

It rained heavily the next day, and preparations were made for another attack;

but at midnight (Jan. 4) Bragg and his army retreated in the direction of Chattanooga. He had telegraphed to Richmond, Jan. 1, "God has granted us a happy New Year." The Nationals in the fight numbered 43,400; the Confederates, 62,720. The Nationals lost 12,000 men, of whom 1,538 were killed. Bragg reported his loss at 10,000. It was estimated by Rosecrans to be much greater than his own. On the spot where Hazen's thin brigade so gallantly held the Confederates at bay, a lasting memorial of the event has been erected in the form of a substantial stone monument in the centre of a lot surrounded by a heavy wall of limestone.

Murphy, HENRY CRUSE, lawyer; born in Brooklyn, N. Y., July 5, 1810; graduated at Columbia College in 1830; admitted to the bar in 1833; elected to Congress in 1843 and 1846; was United States minister to Holland in 1857–61. Throughout his life he was interested in the study of history, especially that pertaining to the period of Dutch ascendency in New York. He translated and added notes to *Voyage from Holland to America; Broad Advice to the New Netherlands; The First Minister of the Dutch Reformed Church in the United States; Henry Hudson in Holland; An Inquiry into the Origin and Objects of the Voyage which led to the Discovery of the Hudson River; Anthology of the New Netherlands, or Translations from the Early Dutch Poets of New York, with Memoirs of their Lives.* He was the author of *The Voyage of Verrazano;* and a *Memoir of Hermann Ernst Ludewig.* He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., Dec. 1, 1882.

Murray, ALEXANDER, naval officer; born in Chestertown, Md., in 1755; commanded a vessel engaged in the European trade at the age of eighteen, and at twenty-one was appointed lieutenant in the Continental navy; but before entering upon his duties he served under Colonel Smallwood on land duty. He did good public service as a privateer during the Revolution, and also in the regular naval service. During the war he was in thirteen battles in the army and navy. After being captured and exchanged, he volunteered his services as a lieutenant on board the *Trumbull,* which, on leaving the Delaware, was attacked and taken by two British vessels of war, after a fierce engagement during a terrible storm on a dark night. In this battle Murray behaved gallantly, and was severely wounded. After his recovery he was made first lieutenant of the frigate *Alliance.* On the organization of the national navy in 1798 he was commissioned a captain, and at one time was in command of the frigate *Constellation.* At his death, near Philadelphia, Oct. 6, 1821, he was in command of the navy-yard at Philadelphia, and was the senior officer in the navy.

Murray, ALEXANDER, naval officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 2, 1818; son of the preceding; entered the navy as a midshipman in 1835, and was made commander in 1862. He served on the Mexican coast during the war against that country, and was afterwards engaged in the coast survey. He was in the battle at Roanoke Island and also of Newbern, in February, 1862. His chief theatre of operations in the Civil War was on the coast of North Carolina. He was promoted captain in 1866, and commodore in 1871. He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 10, 1884.

Murray, JAMES, governor of Canada; born in Scotland, about 1712; fourth son of Lord Elibank; entered the British army in 1751, and served with Wolfe in Europe and America, being brigadier-general in the expedition against Louisburg in 1758. Junior brigadier-general at the capture of Quebec (of which city he was made military governor), he held it against great odds when assailed by De Levi. He was made major-general in 1762, and the next year was again governor of Quebec. He was governor of Minorca in 1778; made a gallant but unsuccessful defence of the fortress there in 1781; and died in Sussex, England, June 8, 1794.

Murray, JAMES ORMSBEE, educator; born in Camden, S. C., Nov. 27, 1827; graduated at Brown University in 1850, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1854. Soon afterwards he became pastor of the Congregational Church in Peabody, Mass., where he remained till 1861. He was then called to the pastorate of the Prospect Street Church in Cambridgeport, which he left in 1865 to become associate pastor with the Rev. Dr. Spring, in the Brick Presbyterian Church in New York. In 1873 he succeeded to

this pastorate; in 1874 accepted the Professorship of Belles-Lettres, and English Language and Literature in the Princeton University; and in 1886 became the first dean of the faculty of Princeton. His works include *Life of Francis Wayland; George Ide Chace: A Memorial; Introduction, with Bibliography, to Cowper's Poetical Works; William Gammell: A Biographical Sketch, with Selections from his Writings; Lectures on English Literature;* and *The Sacrifice of Praise,* a compilation of church hymns. He died in Princeton, N. J., March 27, 1899.

Murray, JOHN O'KANE, historian; born in Glenariffe, Ireland, Dec. 12, 1847; came to the United States in 1856; graduated at St. John's College, Fordham, N. Y.; and became a physician in Brooklyn, N. Y. He was the author of *Popular History of the Catholic Church in the United States; The Catholic Heroes and Heroines of America; The Catholic Pioneers of America,* etc. He died in Chicago, Ill., July 30, 1885.

Murray, LINDLEY, grammarian; born in Swatara, Pa., April 22, 1745; was a member of the Society of Friends. His father was a successful merchant in New York, to which place he removed in 1753. Lindley became a lawyer. During the Revolution he acquired such a handsome property by mercantile pursuits that he was able to retire from business, and in 1784 went to England for his health, where he purchased a small estate near York. In 1787 he published a tract entitled *The Power of Religion on the Mind,* which passed through many editions. He is chiefly known as author of an English grammar (1795), an English reader, and an English spelling-book. He died near York, England, Feb. 16, 1826.

Murray, WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, clergyman; born in Guilford, Conn., April 26, 1840; was graduated at Yale College in 1862; became a preacher and held charges in the Congregational Church in Meriden, Conn., and Boston, Mass.; resigned from the latter pastorate in 1874; and afterwards preached to independent congregations; lectured and engaged in farming. He was the author of *Camp Life in the Adirondacks; Adirondack Tales; Adirondack Adventures; Adventures in the Wilderness; Cones for the Camp-Fire; Daylight Land; Deacons; How J. Norton, Trapper, Kept Christmas; John Norton's Thanksgiving; Lake Champlain; Mamelons and Ungava; Mystery of the Woods; Story the Keg Told Me;* etc. He died in Guilford, Conn., March 3, 1904.

Murray, WILLIAM VANS, diplomatist; born in Cambridge, Md., in 1762; received a classical education; and after the peace in 1783 studied law in the Temple, London; returned about 1785, practised law, served in his State legislature, and was in Congress from 1791 to 1797. He was an eloquent speaker and a keen diplomatist; was appointed by Washington minister to the Batavian Republic, and by Adams sole envoy extraordinary to the French Republic. Ellsworth and Davie afterwards joined him. He was instrumental in the arrangement of the convention signed in Paris in September, 1800, between America and France, and then returned to his mission at The Hague. He died in Cambridge, Dec. 11, 1803.

Musgrave, MARY, Indian interpreter; was a half-breed Creek, and wife of John Musgrave, a South Carolina trader. She lived in a hut at Yamacraw, poor and ragged. Finding she could speak English, Oglethorpe employed her as interpreter, with a salary of $500 a year. Her husband died, and she married a man named Mathews. He, too, died, and about 1749 she became the wife of Thomas Bosomworth, chaplain of Oglethorpe's regiment, a designing knave, who gave the colony much trouble. He had become heavily indebted to Carolinians for cattle, and, to acquire fortune and power, he persuaded Mary to assert that she had descended in a maternal line from an Indian king, and to claim a right to the whole Creek territory. She accordingly proclaimed herself empress of the Creeks, disavowed all allegiance to the English, summoned a general convocation of the Creek chiefs, and recounted the wrongs she had suffered at the hands of the English. Inflamed by her harangue, dictated by Bosomworth, the Indians pledged themselves to defend her royal person and lands. The English were ordered to leave; and, at the head of a large body of warriors, Mary marched towards Sa-

vannah. The white inhabitants, led by President Stephens, armed and prepared to meet them. The Indians were not permitted to enter the town with arms. Then Bosomworth, in full canonicals, with his "queen" by his side, marched in, followed by sachems and chiefs, greatly terrifying the people by their formidable appearance. The prudent Stephens, ordering Bosomworth to withdraw, told the assembled Indians who Mary was, what kind of a character her husband was, and how they had been deceived. They saw the matter clearly, smoked the pipe of peace with the English, and returned to their homes. After giving more trouble, Mary and her husband were put into close confinement; but finally, confessing their errors and craving pardon, they were allowed to depart from Savannah.

Musgrave, Sir Thomas, military officer; born in 1738; was captain in the British army in 1759; came to America with General Howe in 1776; and in the battle of Germantown (*q. v.*) saved the day for his King by throwing himself, with five companies, into Chew's strong stone house, and holding the American forces at bay until the repulsed British columns could rally. He became major-general in 1790, and general in 1802. He died Dec. 31, 1812.

Musgrove's Mill, Affair at. The patriots of South Carolina were not conquered, only made to pause, by the cruelty of Cornwallis. Among those who took protection as a necessary expedient was Col. James Williams, who commanded the post at Ninety-six. He lost no time in gathering the patriots in that region, and on Aug. 18, 1780, fell upon a body of 500 British troops—regulars and loyalist militia—who had established a post at Musgrove's Mill, on the Ennoree River. He routed them, killed sixty, and wounded a greater number, with a loss to himself of eleven men.

Music and Musicians in the United States. Very little attention was given to music during the first hundred years of colonial life beyond the singing of psalms, but since the establishment of musical societies at the beginning of the nineteenth century, the study and practice of music have become increasing factors in life throughout the United States.

First practical instruction-book on singing, compiled by Rev. John Tufts, published in New England..... 1712
Organ presented to the Queen's chapel, Boston, by Thomas Brattle, Esq. Aug., 1713
Singing societies established in different parts of New England..... 1720
Beggar's Opera, written by John Gay in 1727 (probably), first produced in New York.....Dec. 3, 1750
William Billings, of Boston, publishes a collection of his musical compositions entitled *The New England Psalm-Singer, or American Chorister,* in 4 and 5 parts..... 1770
Stoughton (Mass.) Musical Society organized .....Nov. 7, 1786
Oliver Holden, of Charlestown, composer of *Coronation,* publishes *The American Harmony,* in 3 and 4 parts 1792
Mrs. Oldmixon, *née* George, makes her début in America in *Inkle and Yarico* .....Dec. 5, 1798
Euterpean Musical Society, New York City 1800
Massachusetts Musical Society, Boston. 1807
Barber of Seville sung by French artists in New Orleans.....July 12, 1810
Handel and Haydn Society organized in Boston, April 20, 1815; incorporated. Feb. 9, 1816
Clari, the Maid of Milan, libretto by John Howard Payne, containing the song *Home, Sweet Home,* first produced in New York.....Nov. 12, 1823
New York Sacred Music Society, organized 1823, gives its first concert.....March 15, 1824
New York Choral Society gives its first concert at St. George's Church, Beekman Street.....April 20, 1824
Manuel Garcia, with his wife, his son Manuel, daughter Marietta (Malibran), appears in Italian opera in New York City.....Nov. 29, 1825
Musical conventions in America originate in New Hampshire, where the Central Musical Society holds its first convention at Concord.....Sept., 1829
Thomas Hastings, invited by various churches, coming to New York, organizes church choirs, and regulates psalmody on a more religious basis.. 1832
Boston Academy of Music, founded for instruction in the Pestalozzian system, with Lowell Mason at the head, opens 1833
Harvard Musical Association established .....Aug. 30, 1837
Balfe's *Bohemian Girl* produced for the first time in America by the Seguin Opera Company at the Park Theatre, New York .....Nov. 25, 1844
Tour of the Hutchinson family, temperance and anti-slavery singers, in the United States and England.....1846-58
Concert tour of Edward Remenyi, violin virtuoso, in the United States. 1848
Germania orchestra give their first concert in America at Astor Place Opera-house, New York.....Oct. 5, 1848

First public concert of the Mendelssohn Quintet Club at Boston..Dec. 4, 1849
Jenny Lind sings in concert at Castle Garden, New York.....Sept. 11, 1850
Chamber music introduced in New York, 1849; Theodore Eisfeld opens his quartet-soirées at Hope Chapel..... Feb. 18, 1851
Henrietta Sontag appears in the United States .....Sept., 1852
Dwight's *Journal of Music* founded in Boston 1852
Gottschalk's first concert in New York City 1853
Cecilia Society of Cincinnati, O., organizes and gives its first concert..... Sept. 19, 1856
Peabody Institute, Baltimore, Md., founded 1857
Wagner's *Tannhäuser* produced for the first time in America, at the Stadt Theatre, New York.....Aug. 27, 1859
Adelina Patti makes her début in *Lucia* at the Academy of Music, New York .....Nov. 24, 1859
Clara Louise Kellogg makes her début in *Rigoletto* at the Academy of Music, New York..... 1860
Theodore Thomas begins his symphony soirées in New York.....Dec., 1864
Oberlin Conservatory of Music founded. 1865
"Der Nordamerikanische Sängerbund" reorganized at Chicago..... 1868
National Peace Jubilee held in Boston, Mass.; over 10,000 singers and 1,000 musicians; P. S. Gilmore, conductor. June 15-20, 1869
New England Conservatory of Music established at Providence, R. I., 1859; removed to Boston, 1867; incorporated 1870
Beethoven Conservatory of Music founded at St. Louis..... 1871
Fisk University "Jubilee Singers".... Oct., 1871, to May, 1872
World's Peace Jubilee and International Musical Festival held in Boston..... June 17 to July 4, 1872
Beethoven Quintet Club organized in Boston 1873
Music Teachers' National Association organized 1876
New York College of Music incorporated 1878
Cincinnati College of Music incorporated 1878
The Metropolitan Opera-house, New York, opened with the opera *Faust*.. Oct. 22, 1883
Dr. Leopold Damrosch engaged for a season of German opera which began. Nov. 17, 1884
Dr. Damrosch died.....Feb. 15, 1885
American College of Musicians incorporated 1886
Adelina Patti sings at the dedication of the Auditorium, and the Opera-house, Chicago.....Dec. 9, 1889
The first Wagner Cycle, occupying three weeks, and including all the operas excepting *Parsifal*, in season of....1889-90
Corner-stone of Carnegie Music Hall in New York City is laid by Mrs. Carnegie.....May 13, 1890
Carnegie Music Hall opened...April 27, 1891
The Worcester Musical Festival opens with a performance of Bruck's *Arminius*.....Sept. 22, 1891
Sängerfest closes with final concert in Madison Square Garden.....June 25, 1894

PRINCIPAL MUSICAL SOCIETIES IN THE UNITED STATES.

		Organized.
Baltimore, Md.	Oratorio Society	1880
Boston, Mass.	Handel and Haydn Society	1816
	Apollo Club	1871
	Boylston Club	1872
	The Cecilia	1876
	Boston Symphony Orchestra	1880
Brooklyn, N. Y.	Brooklyn Philharmonic Soc'ty	1857
	Apollo Club	1877
	Amphion Musical Society	1879
	Cæcilia Ladies' Vocal Society	1883
Buffalo, N. Y.	Liedertafel	1848
	Orpheus Singing Society	1869
Chicago, Ill.	Apollo Musical Club	1871
Cincinnati, O.	Apollo Club	1881
Cleveland, O.	Cleveland Vocal Society	1872
	Bach Society	1878
Milwaukee, Wis.	Musik-Verein	1849
Minneapolis, Minn.	Gounod Club	1883
Newark, N. J.	Schubert Vocal Society	1880
New York City	Philharmonic Society	1842
	Deutscher Liederkranz	1847
	Mendelssohn Glee Club	1865
	Oratorio Society	1873
	Symphony Society	1878
Philadelphia, Pa.	Orpheus Club	1871
	The Cecilian	1874
Pittsburg, Pa.	The Mozart Club	1877
Rhode Island	Rhode Island Choral Ass'n	1885
Salem, Mass.	Salem Oratorio Society	1867
San Francisco, Cal.	The Loring Club	1876
Springfield, Mass.	Hampden County Mus. Ass'n.	1887
St. Louis, Mo	St. Louis Choral Society	1879
Washington, D. C.	Choral Society	1883
Worcester, Mass.	Worcester County Mus. Ass'n	1863

Mutiny, a revolt against constituted authority; open resistance to officers in authority, especially in the army and navy. The principal revolt or mutiny during the American Revolution was that of the Pennsylvania Line, 2,000 strong, at Morristown, N. J., Jan. 1, 1781. The tardiness of Congress in supplying the wants of the army was the chief cause. Unable to control the troops by his personal efforts, General Wayne appointed two officers, Colonels Stewart and Butler, to conduct them to Princeton, where they submitted to Congress, in writing, their demands. Meanwhile Sir Henry Clinton sent two emissaries among them, making most liberal offers, if they would go over to the British. These men they at once delivered up to the government. Congress appointed commissioners to confer with the troops, and complied with most of

their just demands. Many were, however, disbanded during the winter, and their places filled in the spring with recruits. A like action on the part of the New Jersey Line followed, Jan. 24–28, 1781, but this was quickly subdued, and two ringleaders executed.

The Articles of Confederation, proposed to the Continental Congress, April 15, 1777, were adopted March 1, 1781. The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, Nov. 19, 1781, practically ended the Revolution, but the preliminary treaty of peace with Great Britain was not ratified by Congress until April 15, 1783. During the interval between Yorktown and the conclusion of peace, hostilities were practically suspended, and the American army was encamped at Newburg, N. Y. Congress was unable to pay either officers or men, and the individual States would do nothing either for the army or public credit. The army, witn its pay withheld, and Congress deaf to its petitions and seemingly indifferent to its wants, grew restless, indignant, and, at last, almost mutinous. Early in March, 1782, Col. Louis Nicola presented to Washington, on behalf of the officers, a letter which, after describing the perilous state of feeling in the army and the dangerous aspect of affairs, and showing the necessity of settling at once on a form of government, now peace was assured, showing also that it must be a strong one, took up the several forms of government in the world, discussed the good and bad features of each, and summed up by declaring that a republican government was the most unstable and insecure of all, and a constitutional monarchy, with certain modifications, like that of England, the strongest and safest; and continued, "Such being the fact, it is plain that the same abilities which have led us through difficulties apparently insurmountable by human power to victory and glory, those qualities that have merited and obtained the universal esteem and veneration of the army, would be most likely to conduct and direct us in the smoother path of peace." In short, it declared that he alone could uphold the nation he had saved by his valor, and offered to make him dictator, and concluded by saying that, "owing to the prejudices of the people, it might not at first be prudent to assume the title of royalty, but if all other things were adjusted, we believe strong arguments might be produced for admitting the title of king."

When Washington had read this paper the light died out of his eyes, and a look of inexpressible sadness stole over his countenance. Had he borne and suffered so much for these seven long years to have it all end in this? The emotions that crowded his heart and shook his strong soul to its centre may be gathered from the sudden burst of indignation with which this proposition to make him king was received. "Sir," said he, "it is with a mixture of surprise and astonishment I have read the sentiments you have submitted to my perusal. Be assured, sir, no occurrences in the course of the war have given me more painful sensations than your information of there being such ideas existing in the army as you have expressed, and which I must view with abhorrence and reprehend with severity. I am much at a loss to conceive what part of my conduct could have given encouragement to an address which to me seems big with the greatest mischief that can befall my country. If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself, you could not have found a person to whom your schemes are more disagreeable. Let me conjure you, then, as you have regard for your country, for yourself, or posterity, or respect for me, to banish these thoughts from your mind." See NEWBURG ADDRESSES, THE; NONSENSE, FORT; SOMERS.

Muzzey, ARTEMAS BOWERS, clergyman; born in Lexington, Mass., Sept. 21, 1802; graduated at Harvard College in 1824, and at the Harvard Divinity School in 1828; was ordained in the Unitarian Church. His publications include *Personal Recollections of Men in the Battle of Lexington; Reminiscences of Men of the Revolution and their Families;* and many others of a religious nature. He died in Cambridge, Mass., April 21, 1892.

Myer, ALBERT JAMES, signal-officer; born in Newburg, N. Y., Sept. 20, 1827; graduated at Geneva College in 1847; became a physician, and in 1854 was appointed assistant surgeon in the United States army. From 1858 to 1860 he was on special duty in the signal service, and

in the latter year he was appointed chief signal-officer, with the rank of major. In June, 1861, he was made chief signal-officer on General Butler's staff, and afterwards on that of General McClellan, and was very active during the whole peninsular campaign. Colonel Myer took charge of the signal bureau in Washington, March 3, 1863, and for service at various points, and especially in giving timely signals that saved the fort and garrison at Allatoona, Ga., he was brevetted through all the grades from lieutenant-colonel to brigadier-general. In 1866 he was appointed colonel and signal-officer of the United States army, and introduced a course of signal studies at West Point and Annapolis. He was the author of the weather-signal system, and its chief till his death, in Buffalo, N. Y., Aug. 24, 1880. In 1873 he was a delegate to the International Meteorological Congress at Vienna. He published a *Manual of Signals for the United States Army*.

N.

Nagle, JAMES, military officer; born in Reading, Pa., April 5, 1822; distinguished himself in the Mexican War with the Washington Artillery; was appointed colonel of the 6th Pennsylvania Regiment in 1861; was promoted brigadier-general of volunteers, Sept. 10, 1862, and greatly distinguished himself at the battle of Antietam. Owing to ill-health he was forced to resign, May 9, 1863; but when the Confederates invaded Pennsylvania in June of that year he organized the 39th Pennsylvania Regiment and served as its colonel. In the following year he recruited the 149th Pennsylvania Regiment for a service of 100 days; and was commissioned its colonel. He died in Pottsville, Pa., Aug. 22, 1866.

Naglee, HENRY MORRIS, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Jan. 15, 1815; graduated at West Point in 1835; served in the war against Mexico, and afterwards engaged in commercial pursuits in San Francisco. He was an active officer in the Army of the Potomac through the campaign of 1862, and rose to the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers. He afterwards commanded a division in the Department of North Carolina, and in the Department of the South in 1863. In July and August of that year he commanded the 7th Army Corps. He was mustered out in April, 1864, and afterwards became a banker in San Francisco, where he died March 5, 1886.

Nanticoke Indians, an Algonquian tribe, who once inhabited the peninsula between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays. They were early made vassals to the Five Nations and their allies by compulsion. In 1710 they left their ancient domain, and occupied lands upon the Susquehanna in Pennsylvania until the Revolutionary War, when they crossed the Alleghany Mountains and joined the British in the West.

Nantes, EDICT OF. See EDICT OF NANTES.

Nantucket and Martha's Vineyard, islands off the south coast of Massachusetts, and belonging to that State, the former containing 60, the latter 120 square miles; first noted by Captain Gosnold, 1602, and first settled by some people under Thomas Mayhew from Watertown, Mass., 1643. Both islands in earlier days were famous for their skilled seamen and large business in whale-fishery.

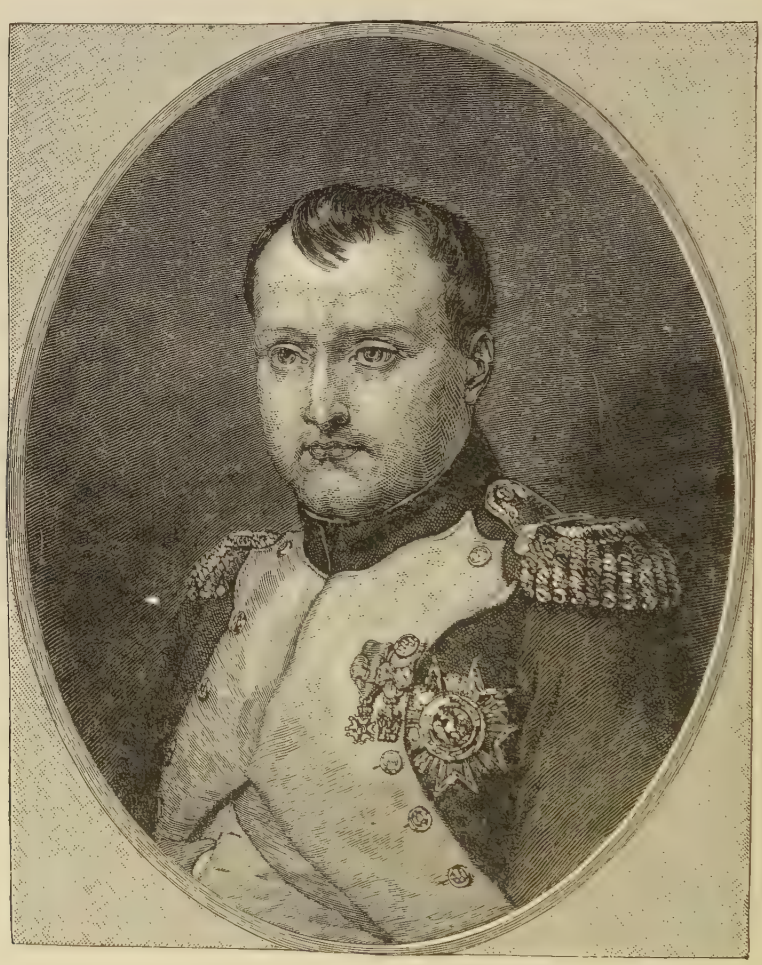
Napier, SIR CHARLES, naval officer; born in Stirlingshire, Scotland, March 6, 1786; joined the British navy in 1799; promoted lieutenant and assigned to duty against the French in the West Indies in 1805. He was ordered to the North American fleet on Lake Champlain in 1813; served on the Potomac River in August, 1814; and commanded the long-boats in the actions before Baltimore. He died in London, Nov. 8, 1860.

Naples, AMERICAN CLAIMS ON. Claims had been made upon the Neapolitan government by citizens of the United States for indemnity for losses occasioned by depredations upon American commerce by Murat, King of Naples, from 1809 to 1812. The restored Bourbons had refused to comply, on the ground that they were not responsible for the acts of one who was a usurper of their power, and from whom they had suffered more than had the Americans. Finally, a convention was negotiated at Naples, in October, 1832, by which it was stipulated that the sum of $1,720,000 should be paid to the United States. These claims had been considered hopeless, but the negotiation was undoubtedly expedited by the appearance at that time of a considerable force of the United States navy in the Bay of Naples.

Napoleon I. In 1803, during the administration of President Jefferson, Napoleon sold to the United States the

territory known as LOUISIANA (*q. v.*) for $15,000,000.

In his greed for money Napoleon relaxed the rigors of his decrees against the commerce of the world by an act of perfidy. While reducing thousands to misery for the sake of his favorite continental system, he became himself a wholesale violator of it. He ordered licenses to be sold, at enormous prices, for introducing, subject to heavy duties, certain foreign articles otherwise prohibited. Certain favored manufacturers had thus been authorized, notwithstanding the Rambouillet decree, to employ thirty or forty American vessels in the importation of cotton, fish-oil, dye-woods, salt fish, hides, and peltry from the ports of New York and Charleston, exclusively, and under an obligation to import, in return, certain special articles of French produce. Orders were sent to French consuls in America to grant certificates of origin to all American vessels bound to French ports, provided they were loaded with American products only—excepting cotton and tobacco, which could only be imported under special licenses. See EMBARGO; ORDERS IN COUNCIL.



NAPOLEON I.

Napoleon's downfall was hailed with joy by the great Federal party in the United States, who considered his ruin as the most damaging blow that could be given to their political opponents and the war party. Pulpits, presses, public meetings, and social gatherings were used as proclaimers of their satisfaction, notwithstanding it was evident that the release thereby of a large British army from service on the Continent would enable the common enemy to send an overwhelming force across the Atlantic that might crush the American armies and possibly reduce the States to British provinces. They hoped the threatened peril would induce the administration to seek peace as speedily as possible. The downfall of Napoleon did release British troops from continental service, and several thousands of them were sent to Canada to reinforce the little British army there. Many of them were Wellington's veterans, hardy and skilful. They arrived at Quebec late in July, and in August were sent up the St. Lawrence to Montreal.

Narraganset Indians, an Algonquian family of the New England Indians which occupied the territory now comprised in the State of Rhode Island. Industrious and hardy, they were numerous, and had twelve towns within a distance of 20 miles. Their chief, Canonicus, sent a bundle of arrows tied with a snake-skin to Governor Bradford, of Plymouth, indicating his hostility. Bradford returned the skin filled with gunpowder. Canonicus was alarmed, and remained peaceable, especially after banished Roger Williams won their good-will by his kindness. They accompanied Massachusetts troops against the Pequods in 1637, and in 1644 ceded their lands to the British King. The Narragansets having violated the terms of a treaty made in 1644, the New England Congress, under the provisions of the union or confederation, sent messengers to the offending Indians requiring their appearance at Boston. At first they treated the messengers kindly, but finally declared that they would not have peace until they received the head of Uncas. Roger Williams warned the congress that the Narragansets would suddenly break out against the English, whereupon that body drew up a declaration justifying them in making war on the recusant Indians. They determined to raise 300 men at once. The news of this preparation alarmed the Indians, and they sued for peace. They were required to pay in instalments 2,000 fathoms of wampum; to

ATTACK ON THE NARRAGANSET INDIANS AT SOUTH KINGSTON.

restore to Uncas all the captives and canoes they had taken from him; to submit all matters of controversy between Uncas and them to the congress; keep perpetual peace with the English; and give hostages for the performance of the treaty. This compact was signed Aug. 30, 1645.

The Narragansets engaged in King Philip's War, and had a strong fort in a swamp in South Kingston, R. I. Against this fort marched about 1,000 New-Englanders in the middle of December, 1675. With these troops were about 150 Mohegan Indians, and Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, was the commander-in-chief. They marched through deep snow, and at 4 P.M. on Dec. 16 they attacked the fort. There was but one entrance, which had to be reached in the face of a fire from a blockhouse. The Massachusetts men, who first attacked, were repulsed, and several of the captains were killed. There was a desperate hand-to-hand fight, and the Indians were finally driven out into the open country. The 600 wigwams were set on fire, and the winter store of corn was destroyed. About 700 of the Indians were killed, including several chiefs, and of a large number wounded about 300 died. Many old men, women, and children perished, some of them in the flames. In this encounter Connecticut alone lost eighty men. Captains Johnson, Davenport, and Gardiner, of Massachusetts, and Gallop, Seely, and Marshall, of Connecticut, were slain. The Narragansets were almost exterminated in that war. The remnant settled at Charlestown, R. I., and were prosperous for a while, but the tribe is now extinct. See KING PHILIP'S WAR.

Narvaez, PÁNFILO DE, explorer; born in Valladolid, Spain, about 1478; went to Santo Domingo in 1501, and thence to Cuba, where he was the chief lieutenant of Velasquez, the governor. Cortez carrying matters with a high hand in Mexico, Narvaez was sent by Velasquez to Cuba to supersede him, but was defeated, lost an eye, and was held a prisoner by Cortez. On his release Narvaez returned to Spain, and in June, 1527, sailed from San Lucar, by authority of the King, with 600 men in five vessels, commanded to conquer Florida and govern it. After long detention at Santo Domingo and Cuba, he sailed for Florida with 400 men and eighty horses, accompanied by CABEZA DE VACA (*q. v.*) as treasurer of the expedition, who was to be deputy-governor. They landed at Tampa Bay on April 13, 1528, where Narvaez raised the standard of Spain and took possession of the country in the name of its King, and his officers took the oath of allegiance to him as governor.

Instead of treating the native inhabitants kindly, and winning their friendship and an easy conquest, Narvaez followed the example of his countrymen in Santo Domingo and Cuba. He marched into the interior with high hopes, directing his vessels to sail along the coasts. He pressed forward in daily expectation of finding some city sparkling with wealth. All before him were creations of imagination, all behind him were gloomy disappointments. Treachery met his cruelty at every step. Compelled to fight foes and failing to find gold, Narvaez turned towards the sea—the Gulf of Mexico—and at the mouth of the Apalachicola, failing to find his ships, he caused frail boats to be built, embarked with his followers, and coasted towards the mouth of the Mississippi. One by one his followers died from starvation, and finally a "norther" struck and dispersed the flotilla. Narvaez was never heard of afterwards. The boat that carried De Vaca stranded on an island, where they were kindly treated by the natives. De Vaca was the only Spaniard of the expedition who returned to Spain.

Nash, ABNER, legislator; born in Prince Edward county, Va., Aug. 8, 1716; practised law in Newbern, N. C., which town he represented in the first Provincial Congress when it convened there, Aug. 25, 1774. He served on the committee which drew up the North Carolina constitution in 1776; was governor of the State in 1779–81; and held a seat in the Continental Congress in 1782–86. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., Dec. 2, 1786.

Nash, FRANCIS, military officer; born in Prince Edward county, Va., May 10, 1720; brother of Abner Nash, governor of North Carolina; became clerk of the Superior Court of Orange county, N. C.; and was a captain, under the crown, on service under Governor Tryon against the Regulators. He was a member

of the Provincial Congress of North Carolina in 1775, and was appointed by that body a lieutenant-colonel. In February, 1777, he was promoted to brigadier-general in the Continental army. Joining Washington before the battle at the Brandywine (Sept. 11, 1777), he participated in that action, and also at Germantown (Oct. 4), where he was mortally wounded, and died Oct. 7.

Nashville, largest city, railroad centre, and capital of the State of Tennessee; population in 1890, 76,168; in 1900, 80,865.

The city was the scene of stirring military operations in the Civil War. In February, 1862, General Pillow telegraphed to Nashville while the siege of Fort Donelson was going on: "Enemy retreating! Glorious result! Our boys following and peppering their rear! A complete victory!" This despatch made the people of Nashville happy, and they were comfortably seated in their churches on Sunday, Feb. 16, when the news reached them of the surrender of Fort Donelson to the Nationals. There was panic everywhere. Gen. A. S. Johnston, at Bowling Green, ordered the troops there to fly to Nashville, for General Mitchel, of Buell's army, was pressing on them. They did so, after destroying property valued at $500,000. They were followed by the Army of the Ohio. At the same time National gunboats were ascending the Cumberland River to co-operate with the troops. The Confederates of Nashville were fearfully excited. The governor of Tennessee (Harris) rode through the streets, and with his associates gathered as many papers as possible at the capitol as concerned themselves and fled by railway to Memphis. The officers of banks bore away their specie. Citizens, with their most valuable portable possessions, fled by railway to Decatur and Chattanooga. The public stores were thrown wide open, and everybody was allowed to carry away provisions and clothing. Johnston and his troops passed rapidly through the city, southward, and Nashville was surrendered to the Nationals, Feb. 26, 1862, by the civil authorities. ANDREW JOHNSON (*q. v.*) was appointed provisional governor of Tennessee with the military rank of brigadier-general. He entered upon the duties in Nashville on March 4.

Gen. A. J. Smith had arrived at Nashville when Schofield reached there (see FRANKLIN, BATTLE OF), and Thomas's forces there were put in battle array on Dec. 1, 1864. They were on an irregular semicircular line on the hills around the city, on the southern side of the Cumberland River. General Smith's troops were on the right; the 4th Corps, under Gen. T. J. Wood (in the absence of the wounded Stanley), was in the centre; and the 23d Corps, under Gen. John M. Schofield, was on the left. About 5,000 troops, outside of these corps—white and colored—were posted on the left of Schofield. To these were added the troops comprising the garrison at Nashville and Wilson's cavalry at Edgefield, on the north side of the Cumberland. The troops of Thomas were better and more numerous than those of Hood, but, on account of the absence of cavalry and a deficiency of transportation, he withheld an attack upon Hood, who was in front of him for about a fortnight. The latter had formed his line of investment on Dec. 4, with his salient within 600 yards of Wood, at Thomas's centre. For a few days there was some skirmishing, and then for a week the cold was so intense that very little was done. Thomas made a general advance, on the morning of the 15th, from his right, while Steedman made a vigorous movement of his left to distract Hood. The country was covered with a dense fog, which did not rise until near noon. Gen. A. J. Smith pressed forward, while Wilson's cavalry made a wide circuit to gain Hood's rear. Other troops were busy on the right, striking vigorous blows here and there; but finally, at 1 P.M., General Wood, commanding the centre, having moved forward parallel with Smith's troops, directed a brigade led by Col. S. P. Post to charge Hood's works on Montgomery Hill. This was done, and some Confederates were made prisoners. Then Schofield, in reserve, moved rapidly to the right of Smith, by which the National cavalry was allowed to operate more freely on the Confederate rear. Then the whole line moved forward. Wood carried the entire body of Confederate works on his front, captured several guns, and took 500 prisoners; while Smith and Schofield and the dis-

mounted cavalry pressed back the left flank of the Confederates several miles to the foot of the Harpeth Hills. Steedman, meanwhile, had gained some advantage on Thomas's extreme left. But darkness closed the contest, which resulted in the capture by the Nationals of 1,200 prisoners, sixteen guns, forty wagons, and many small-arms. Thomas now readjusted his lines.

On the morning of the 16th Wood advanced, forced back Hood's skirmishers on the Franklin pike, and, pushing on southward, was confronted by Hood's new line of defences on Overton's Hill, 5 miles from the city. Steedman then secured Wood's flank by taking post on his left, and Smith came in on Wood's right, while Schofield threatened the Confederate left. Wilson's cavalry, dismounted, formed on his right. The movement on Hood's left, so successful the day before, was now continued. The whole National line moved to within 600 yards of that of the Confederates. Wilson's cavalry was soon upon their left flank, and at 3 P.M. two of Wood's brigades assailed the Confederates on Overton's Hill, in front, and Thompson's negro brigade assailed them farther to the National left. These attacks were repulsed with fearful loss to the assailants. The troops were rallied, and Smith and Schofield, charging with great impetuosity upon the Confederate works on their respective fronts, carried all before them. Wilson's dismounted men charged farther to the right and blocked a way of retreat. This successful movement was announced by shouts of victory, which Wood and Steedman heard, and again charged the Confederate works on their front which were taken and secured. The Confederates fled in such haste that they left behind them their dead, wounded, prisoners, and guns. It was a complete rout.

During the two days Thomas had captured from Hood 4,462 prisoners, fifty-three guns, and many small-arms. He had broken the spirit of Hood's army beyond hope of recovery. The Confederates fled towards Alabama, pursued for several days, while rain was falling copiously. The streams were swollen, and, as the fugitives destroyed the bridges behind them, and the Nationals had no pontoons, the chase was unsuccessful. Then the weather became extremely cold. At Columbia, on the Duck River, Forrest joined the retreating host, and with his cavalry and 4,000 infantry he covered the shattered Confederate army. This rear-guard struck back occasionally. The pursuit was suspended at Lexington, Ala., on the 28th. Thomas estimated his entire loss in his campaign, from Sept. 7, 1864, to Jan. 20, 1865, at 10,000 men, or less than half the loss of Hood. During that time he had captured 11,857 men, besides 1,332 who had been exchanged, making a total of about 13,000. He had also captured seventy-two serviceable guns and over 3,000 small-arms.

The Tennessee Centennial and National Exposition was held at Nashville in 1897, from May 1 to Oct. 30, in West Side Park. Among the features were reproductions of the Parthenon, the Pyramid of Cheops, the Alamo, the Rialto, etc. About 2,000,000 people attended the fair.

Nashville, CRUISER. See CONFEDERATE STATES.

Nashville Convention. See SOUTHERN CONVENTIONS.

Nason, ELIAS, clergyman; born in Wrentham, Mass., April 21, 1811; graduated at Brown College in 1835; ordained in the Congregational Church in Natick, Mass.; and later became popular as a lecturer. His publications include *Our Obligations to Defend Our Country; Eulogy on Edward Everett; Eulogy on Lincoln; Gazetteer of Massachusetts; History of Middlesex County,* etc. He died in North Billerica, Mass., June 17, 1887.

Nassau, FORT. Erected by the Dutch West India Company in 1623 near the present town of Gloucester, N. J. The fort was abandoned in 1651.

Nast, THOMAS, artist; born in Landau, Bavaria, Sept. 27, 1840; came with his parents to the United States at an early age; and was educated in public schools. He began his artist career in the office of *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper,* where he became a sketch artist and illustrator on wood. In 1860–61 he was an art correspondent with Garibaldi for American and British newspapers. Subsequently he became widely noted as a political cartoonist on *Harper's Weekly.*

His cartoons on the Tweed Ring had a large influence in the destruction of that corrupt organization, and one of his caricatures caused the arrest in Spain of the Tammany leader, after he had escaped from Ludlow Street jail in New York City. Mr. Nast acquired wide popularity from his habit of illustrating his lectures with caricatures drawn before his audience. He died, while consul-general, at Guayaquil, Ecuador, Dec. 7, 1902.

Nast, WILLIAM, clergyman, born in Stuttgart, Germany, June 15, 1807; graduated at Tubingen University in 1828; Professor of German and French in the United States Military Academy, West Point, in 1829; ordained a minister in the Methodist Church in 1837, and appointed to work among the Germans in 1837; organized the German branch of the Methodist Church in the United States and Germany. He established *Der Christliche Apologete* as an organ of the Church in 1839. In addition to his ministerial and editorial work he wrote many books and edited a still larger number for the use of the Church. He died in Cincinnati, O., May 16, 1899.

Natchez Indians, a nation that inhabited the eastern borders of the Mississippi River. They were known to Europeans as early as 1560, when De Luna aided the Gulf tribes in a war against them. Their sun-worship, mound-building, and language point to a relationship with the inhabitants of Yucatan. La Salle, coming from the north, planted a cross in their country in 1683. Iberville also visited them, and proposed to build a city there. They were brave, wild, and dissolute. Their chief was called the Great Sun, whose power was despotic. They averred that their first civilizers were a man and woman who descended from the sun. In a temple built on a mound they kept a perpetual fire. They had many feasts and revelled in sensual indulgence. After European traders found them they rapidly declined in numbers and power while they fought the French (see below). The Natchez were joined by the YAZOOS and CHICKASAWS (*qq. v.*), while the CHOCTAWS (*q. v.*) joined the French, early in the eighteenth century. In 1730 the French fell upon and almost annihilated the Natchez, and they never recovered from the shock. After maintaining a feeble nationality for a century, they were merged into the Creek confederacy.

National Academy of Science, a scientific organization incorporated by act of Congress, March 3, 1863; first meeting April 22, 1863, Alexander D. Bach first president; duties consist in the investigation, examination, experimenting, and reporting on any subject of science and art. The actual cost of investigation, etc., is paid for by the United States government; no other compensation is received. At first the number of members was limited to fifty—since 1870 to 100; a limited number of foreign members are admitted.

National Bank System. See BANKS.

National Constitution. See CONSTITUTION, UNITED STATES.

National Debt of the United States. The following statement shows the principal of the national debt of the United States from 1791 to 1901.

1791	$75,463,476.52
1792	77,227,924.66
1793	80,352,634.04
1794	78,427,404.77
1795	80,747,587.39
1796	83,762,172.07
1797	82,064,479.33
1798	79,228,529.12
1799	78,408,669.77
1800	82,976,294.35
1801	83,038,050.80
1802	80,712,632.25
1803	77,054,686.30
1804	86,427,120.88
1805	82,312,150.50
1806	75,723,270.66
1807	69,218,398.64
1808	65,196,317.97
1809	57,023,192.09
1810	53,173,217.52
1811	48,005,587.76
1812	45,209,737.90
1813	55,962,827.57
1814	81,487,846.24
1815	99,833,660.15
1816	127,334,933.74
1817	123,491,965.16
1818	103,466,633.83
1819	95,529,648.28
1820	91,015,566.15
1821	89,987,427.66
1822	93,546,676.98
1823	90,875,877.28
1824	90,269,777.77
1825	83,788,432.71
1826	81,054,059.99
1827	73,987,357.20
1828	67,475,043.87
1829	58,421,413.67
1830	48,565,406.50

Statement showing principal of national debt.—*Continued.*

1831	$39,123,191.68
1832	24,322,235.18
1833	7,001,698.83
1834	4,760,082.08
1835	37,733.05
1836	37,513.05
1837	336,957.83
1838	3,308,124.07
1839	10,434,221.14
1840	3,573,343.82
1841	5,250,875.54
1842	13,594,480.73
1843	32,742,922.00
1844	23,461,652.50
1845	15,925,303.01
1846	15,550,202.97
1847	38,826,534.77
1848	47,044,862.23
1849	63,061,858.69
1850	63,452,773.55
1851	68,304,796.02
1852	66,199,341.71
1853	59,803,117.70
1854	42,242,222.42
1855	35,586,956.56
1856	31,972,537.90
1857	28,699,831.85
1858	44,911,881.03
1859	58,496,837.88
1860	64,842,287.88
1861	90,580,873.72
1862	524,176,412.13
1863	1,119,772,138.63
1864	1,815,784,370.57
1865	2,680,647,869.74
1866	2,773,236,173.69
1867	2,678,126,103.87
1868	2,611,687,851.19
1869	2,588,452,213.94
1870	2,480,672,427.81
1871	2,353,211,332.32
1872	2,253,251,328.78
1873	2,234,482,993.20
1874	2,251,690,468.43
1875	2,232,284,531.95
1876	2,180,395,067.15
1877	2,205,301,392.10
1878	2,256,205,892.53
1879	2,349,567,482.04
1880	2,120,415,370.63
1881	2,069,013,569.58
1882	1,918,312,994.03
1883	1,884,171,728.07
1884	1,830,528,923.57
1885	1,863,964,873.14
1886	1,775,063,013.78
1887	1,657,602,592.63
1888	1,692,858,984.58
1889	1,619,052,922.23
1890	1,552,140,204.73
1891	1,546,215,876.00
1892	1,603,440,970.61
1893	1,556,281,905.63
1894	1,638,045,005.18
1895	1,717,481,779.90
1896	1,785,412,640.00
1897	1,808,777,643.40
1898	1,964,837,130.90
1899	$2,092,686,024.42
1900	2,132,373,031.17
1901	2,151,685,743.89
1902	2,175,246,168.89
1903	2,218,883,772.89
1904	2,264,003,585.14

See DEBT, NATIONAL.

National Guard, UNITED STATES. See ARMY; MILITIA.

Nationalism, the doctrine in the United States that the general government should exercise a larger control over affairs of national importance, as for instance: (1) control of telegraphs, telephones, and express companies; (2) nationalization of railroads; (3) ownership of mines, oil and gas wells; (4) control of heating, lighting, and street-car service of cities, all carried on in the interest of the general public and not for individuals or corporations; in other words, for use and not for profit; (5) children to be educated until seventeen years of age; child labor prohibited, etc. Bellamy's novel, *Looking Backward,* 1888, expresses these views.

Native American Party. In 1844 the great influx of foreigners into the city of New York for several years preceding, and the facility with which our naturalization laws permitted foreigners to become voters, had enabled the adopted citizens to hold the balance of power between the two great parties, Whigs and Democrats, in the city elections. The consequence was that when either party gained a victory the adopted citizens claimed, as was alleged, an unreasonable share of the spoils, and the amount of the patronage controlled by the mayor and common council of New York was very great. The native citizens became alarmed, and it was resolved to endeavor to make the naturalization laws more stringent. A large number of citizens, including many of the most respectable in character and wealth, united in forming a Native American party. They nominated James Harper for mayor, and he was elected by a majority of 4,316, with a greater portion of the aldermen. The Native American party immediately extended its influence, and for some years held a conspicuous place in the politics of the republic. See AMERICAN PARTY; AMERICAN PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION; KNOW-NOTHING PARTY.

Naturalization. The first naturalization act in the American colonies was passed by the colonial legislature of Maryland in 1666, and the second by the Assembly of New York in 1715, the latter for the benefit of all Protestants of foreign birth then inhabiting that colony. The first congressional act was that of March 22, 1790, providing for a uniform rule. It authorized all courts of record to entertain the applications of "alien free white persons" who had resided within the United States for two years, and, on proof of good character and their taking an oath or affirmation to support the Constitution, to admit such persons as citizens. It also provided that no persons who had been disfranchised by any State under laws passed during the Revolutionary War was to be readmitted as a citizen, except by a legislative act of the State to which he had formerly belonged. The power of admitting new citizens is still retained by all courts of record, but in other respects the law has been modified (see below).

The Reign of Terror in France caused the emigration to America of a large number of French citizens, many of them nobles, who had been banished from their country. Many of the discontented Irish sought refuge in the United States. British agents at that time carried on a large portion of the trade of the Southern States, and Madison had proposed measures to exclude foreign residents in America from an equal participation with citizens in commercial privileges. The fear of foreign democrats by the Federalists and the fear of foreign aristocrats by the Republicans made both parties in agreement in framing a new naturalization law, early in 1795, making the attainment of citizenship by an alien more difficult. The new act required the preliminary residence of the alien, before naturalization, of five years; also, a three years' previous declaration of intention to become a citizen, to be made in a court of record; also, one year's residence in the State where the naturalization should be had. The new citizen was called upon to renounce, forever, all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince or state; and if he had borne any title of nobility, he must make an express renunciation of it. The last provision elicited warm debate in Congress. See NOBILITY, TITLES OF.

The government makes no distinction between its citizens, whether native or naturalized, in furnishing protection to them. A notable illustration of this was given in the case of Martin Koszta, a Hungarian exile, who had been naturalized in the United States. While he was engaged in business in Smyrna, Asia Minor, he was seized by order of the Austrian consul-general, and placed on board a vessel bound for Trieste, as a refugee. The *St. Louis* (Captain Ingraham), a naval vessel of the United States, was then lying in the harbor of Smyrna. Hearing of the arrest, Captain Ingraham claimed Koszta as an American citizen. On the refusal of the Austrian authorities to release the prisoner, Ingraham cleared his vessel for action (July, 1853) and threatened to fire upon the brig if Koszta was not delivered within a given time. The Austrians yielded to the argument of forty well-shotted guns, and the prisoner was placed in the custody of the French consul to await the action of the respective governments. Ingraham's conduct was applauded by his countrymen, and Congress voted him a sword. This protection of an humble adopted citizen of the United States in a foreign land increased the respect for our government and flag abroad. The pride of the Austrian government was severely wounded. It issued a protest against the proceedings of Ingraham and sent it to all the European courts. The Austrian minister at Washington demanded an apology, or other redress, from the United States government, and threatened it with the displeasure of his royal master. No serious difficulty ensued. Koszta soon returned to the United States.

Laws of the United States.—The conditions and the manner in which an alien may be admitted as a citizen of the United States are prescribed by sections 2,165–74 of the revised statutes.

Declaration of Intention. — An alien seeking naturalization must declare on oath before a circuit or district court of the United States, or a district or supreme court of the Territories, or a court of record of any of the States having common

law jurisdiction, and a seal and clerk, at least two years prior to his admission, that it is, *bona fide*, his intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign State or prince, and particularly to the one of which he may be at the time a citizen or subject.

Oath on Application for Admission.—At the time of his application to be admitted he must declare on oath, before some one of the courts above specified, "that he will support the Constitution of the United States, and that he absolutely and entirely renounces and abjures all allegiance and fidelity to every foreign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty, and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, state, or soverignty of which he was before a citizen or subject," which proceedings must be recorded by the clerk of the court.

Conditions of Citizenship.—It must appear to the satisfaction of the court to which he has applied that the alien has resided continuously within the United States for at least five years, and within the State or Territory where such court is at the time held one year at least; and that during that time "he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same."

Titles of Nobility.—If the applicant bears any hereditary title or belongs to any order of nobility, he must make an express renunciation of the same at the time of his application.

Soldiers.—An alien twenty-one years old and upward who has been in the armies of the United States, and has been honorably discharged therefrom, may become a citizen on his petition, without any previous declaration of intention, provided that he has resided in the United States at least one year previous to his application, and is of good moral character.

Minors.—Any alien under the age of twenty-one years who has resided in the United States three years next preceding his arriving at that age, and who has continued to reside therein to the time he may make application to be admitted a citizen thereof, may, after he arrives at the age of twenty-one years, and after he has resided five years within the United States, including the three years of his minority, be admitted a citizen; but he must make a declaration on oath and prove to the satisfaction of the court that for two years next preceding it has been his *bona fide* intention to become a citizen.

Children of Naturalized Citizens.—The children of persons who have been duly naturalized, being under the age of twenty-one years at the time of the naturalization of their parents, shall, if dwelling in the United States, be considered as citizens thereof.

Citizens' Children who are Born Abroad.—The children of persons who now are or have been citizens of the United States are, though born out of the limits and jurisdiction of the United States, considered as citizens thereof.

Chinese.—The naturalization of Chinamen is expressly prohibited by section 14, chapter 126, laws of 1882.

Protection Abroad to Naturalized Citizens.—Section 2,000 of the revised statutes of the United States declares that "all naturalized citizens of the United States while in foreign countries are entitled to and shall receive from this government the same protection of persons and property which is accorded to native-born citizens."

The Right of Suffrage.—The right to vote is confirmed by the State. Naturalization is a federal right, and is a gift of the Union, not of any one State. In many States aliens (who have declared intentions) vote and have the right to vote equally with naturalized or native-born citizens; in the others only actual citizens may vote. The federal naturalization laws apply to the whole Union alike, and provide that no alien may be naturalized until after five years' residence, except an honorably discharged soldier or a person whose parents have been naturalized while he was under twenty-one years of age, as above recited. Even after five years' residence and due naturalization he is not entitled to vote unless the laws of the State confer the privilege upon him, and he may vote in several States six months after landing, if he has declared his intention, under United States law, to become a citizen.

Nauvoo, a city in Hancock county, Ill., which in 1831 was selected as the gathering-place of the Mormons, but the bulk of the community did not leave Kirtland, O., until 1838. The citizens of Illinois determined to expel these people, and arrested the prophet Joseph Smith in 1844 and carried him to jail, where a mob shot him. Within a few months Brigham Young, his successor, determined to remove the entire community to a site west of the Rocky Mountains. Sixteen thousand Mormons crossed the Mississippi in May, 1846, on their way westward, leaving about 1,000 behind them with instructions to sell the remaining property and join the main body as soon as possible. Nauvoo in 1900 had a population of 1,321. See MORMONS.

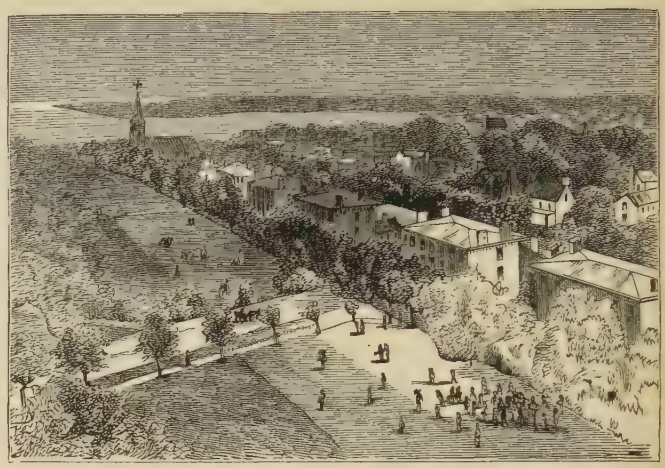
Navajo Indians, a family that really forms a part of the Apaches, but is more civilized than the rest of the tribe. They occupied the table-lands and mountain districts on the San Juan and Little Colorado rivers, and cultivated the soil extensively. With their more warlike kindred, the Apaches, they have carried on hostilities with the Mexicans from a very early period. Attempts to subjugate them had failed, and treaties were broken by them as soon as made until 1863, when Colonel Carson conquered them and compelled them to remove some distance from their mountain fastnesses. In 1899 they

HEAD OF A NAVAJO INDIAN.

numbered 20,500, and, with the Moquis Pueblos (2,641), occupied a reservation of 7,698,560 acres, at what was officially known as the Navajo agency in Arizona.

Naval Academy, UNITED STATES, a government institution at Annapolis, Md., established through the efforts of GEORGE BANCROFT (*q. v.*), Secretary of the Navy, and opened Oct. 10, 1845, for the purpose of educating and training young men in the theory and practice of naval science. It was first known as the Naval School, and occupied Fort Severn, which had been transferred by the War Department to the navy for that purpose. It was reorganized in 1850 and the name changed to Naval Academy. During the Civil War it was removed to Newport, R. I., but was returned to Annapolis in 1865. Cadets are appointed by the Secretary of the Navy, one from each congressional district, Territory, and the District of Columbia, on the recommendation of the representative or delegate in Congress of the State, Territory, or district in which the applicant is an actual resident. The President has the power of appointing the cadets at large as well as the one from the District of Columbia. The course of naval cadets is six years, the last two of which are spent at sea. Candidates at the time of their examination for admission must be not under fifteen nor over twenty years of age and physically sound, well formed, and of robust constitution. They are examined by the academic board in reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, United States history, world's history, algebra through quadratic equations, and plane geometry. Deficiency in any one of these subjects may be sufficient to insure the rejection of the candidate. They enter the academy immediately after passing the prescribed examinations, and are required to sign articles binding themselves to serve in the United States navy eight years (including the time of probation at the Naval Academy), unless sooner discharged. The pay of a naval cadet is $500 a year, beginning at the date of admission. The course of instruction during the first three years includes English history, French, German, Spanish, mathematics, mechanics, physics, chemistry, mechanical drawing, and seamanship. During the fourth year the class is divided into the naval construction, engineer, and line divisions. The courses of study are specialized to suit the divisions. Ap-

pointments to fill all vacancies that occur during the year in the lower grades of the line of the navy and of the marine corps are made from the naval cadets, graduates of the year, at the conclusion of their six years' course, in the order of merit as determined by the academic board. The academy is under the direct supervision of the bureau of navigation, Navy Department. In 1904 Captain Willard H. Brownson, U. S. N., was superintendent.



UNITED STATES NAVAL ACADEMY, ANNAPOLIS, MD.—OFFICERS' ROW.

Naval Battles. See BATTLES.

Naval Militia, an adjunct to the United States navy, first organized in New York in 1895. By July, 1897, the militia had been organized in fifteen States bordering on the coast and Great Lakes. The duty of the naval militia in time of war is to man the coast and harbor defence vessels, leaving the regular force for offensive work. The naval militia will also operate in boat squadrons with torpedoes against any hostile fleet in our waters. In 1904 the naval militia was organized in sixteen States and in the District of Columbia, as follows; California, Capt. Thomas A. Nerney; Connecticut, Com. Fred L. Averill; District of Columbia, Lieut.-Com. R. B. Brumneeth; Georgia, Com. H. L. Colding; Illinois, Capt. S. E. Darby; Louisiana, Com. J. W. Bostick; Maryland, Com. Edwin Gear; Maine, Lieut. H. M. Bigelow; Massachusetts, Capt. G. R. H. Buffington; Michigan, Com. F. D. Standish; New Jersey, Battalion of the East, Com. W. Irving; Battalion of the West, Com. J. B. Potter; New York, Capt. J. W. Miller; North Carolina, Com. T. C. Daniels; Ohio, Com. W. C. Welben, commanding 1st Battalion, Lieut.-Com. W. E. Wirt, commanding 2d Battalion; Pennsylvania, Com. C. W. Ruschenberger; Rhode Island, Com. G. C. Sims; and South Carolina, Com. R. H. Pinckney. The total force on Dec. 31, 1903, was 443 commissioned officers and 4,740 enlisted men. The Navy Department transacts all its business with the naval militia through the governors and the adjutants-general of the States. The officer representing the Navy Department at Washington having cognizance of naval-militia matters is Lieut.-Com. W. H. H. Southerland, U. S. N.

Naval Order of the United States, a patriotic organization consisting of a general commandery and commanderies in Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, New York, California, Illinois, and the District of Columbia, meeting annually in November. The first commandery was founded at Boston, Mass., July 4, 1890, and the general commandery June 19, 1893. The membership clause of the constitution provides for two classes of members: First, veteran officers and their male descendants; second, enlisted men who have received the United States naval medal of honor for bravery in the face of the enemy. The officers of the general commandery in 1900 were: General-Commander, Rear-Admiral John G. Walker; Vice-General-Commanders, Admiral George Dewey, Rear-Admiral George E. Belknap, Col. John Biddle Porter; General-Recorder, Lieut.-Com. Leonard Chenery; Assist-

ant General-Recorder, Rodney Macdonough; General-Treasurer, Jarvis B. Edson; General-Registrar, J. V. P. Turner; General-Historian, Capt. R. S. Collum; General-Chaplain, Rev. George Williamson Smith, D.D.

NAVAL SHIPS

Naval Ships. Capt. Alfred Taylor Mahan (*q. v.*), author of *The Influence of Sea Power upon History; Life of Admiral Farragut; The Interest of the United States in Sea Power*, etc., writes as follows:

In the conditions of naval warfare the nineteenth century has seen a revolution unparalleled in the rapidity of the transition and equalled in degree only by the changes which followed the general introduction of cannon and the abandonment of oars in favor of sails for the propulsion of ships-of-war. The latter step was consequent, ultimately, upon the discovery of the New World and of the sea-passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope. The voyage to those distant regions was too long and the remoteness from ports of refuge too great for rowing galleys, a class of vessels whose construction unfitted them for developing great size and for contending with heavy weather. The change of motive power made possible and entailed a different disposition of the fighting power, the main battery weight of ships being transferred from the bows and sterns—end-on fire—to the broadsides. The combination of these two new factors caused ships and fleets necessarily to be fought in a different manner from formerly—entailed, to use the technical word, new tactics.

When the nineteenth century began, the ships that contended for the control of the sea were, and for two centuries had been, sailing-ships with broadside batteries: the guns, that is, were distributed along both sides from the bow to the stern on one, two, three, or four decks. From the largest down, all were of this type until the very smallest class was reached. In the latter, which could scarcely be considered fighting-ships, the gun-power was at times concentrated into a single piece, which swept from side to side round the horizon, thus anticipating partially the modern turreted iron-clad with its concentrated revolving battery.

The arrangement of guns in broadside involved anomalies and inconveniences which seem most singular when first noted. A ship in chase of another, for instance, had no guns which threw straight ahead. If it were wished to fire, in order to cripple the fleeing enemy, it was necessary to deflect from the course; and in order to bring most of the guns on one side into play the vessel had to swing round nearly at right angles to the direction of pursuit. This, of course, lost both time and ground. Broadside fire—the distribution of guns in broadside—rests, however, upon an unchangeable condition, which controls now as it did a century ago. Ships then were from three to four times as long as they were broad; the proportion now is, length from four to six times the breadth—or beam, as it is technically called. Therefore, except in small vessels, where the concentration of the whole weight that can be carried in battery gave but one piece effective against a probable target, a full development of fire required the utilization of the long side of the ship rather than of its short cross-section. This is precisely analogous to the necessity that an army has of deploying into line, from any order of march, in order to develop its full musketry fire. The mechanical attainment of the nineteenth century did not permit the construction of single guns that would contain the weight of the whole battery of a big ship: but even had it, guns are not wanted bigger than will penetrate their target most effectively. When an ounce of lead will kill a man it is useless to fire a pound. The limit of penetration once reached, it is numbers, not size, that tell; and numbers could be had only by utilizing the broadside. This condition remains operative now; but as modern battle-ships present two or more kinds of target—the heavy armored and that which is light armored, or unprotected—the application of the principle in

practice becomes more complicated. Batteries now are necessarily less homogeneous than they once were, because targets vary more. The adoption of broadside batteries followed, therefore, necessarily upon increase of size and consequent length, but not upon that only. It is instructive to observe that the sailing fighting-ship was derived, in part, at least, from the galley, and its resemblance in form to the latter is traceable for at least a century after the general disuse of the oar. As the galley, however, was small, it could concentrate its fire advantageously in one or two pieces, for which small number the cross-section offered a sufficient line of emplacement: and as, when it could move at all, it could move in any direction, there was a further advantage in being able to fire in the direction of its motion. Hence, bow fire prevailed in galleys to the end, although the great galeasses of Lepanto and the Armada had accepted broadside batteries in great part, and whenever the galley type has recurred, as on Lake Champlain during our Revolutionary War, bow fire has predominated. The sailing-ship, on the contrary, was limited as to the direction in which she could move. Taking her as the centre of a circle, she could not steer directly for much more than half the points on the circumference. Bow fire consequently was much less beneficial to her, and, further, it was found that, for reasons not necessary to particularize, her sailing, steering, and manœuvring were greatly benefited by the leverage of sails carried on the bowsprit and its booms, projecting forward of the bow, where they interfered decisively with right-ahead fire.

For all these reasons, bow fire disappeared and broadside fire prevailed; but the fundamental one to be remembered is the greater development of fire conferred by greater length. All ships—except the very small ones known as schooners, cutters, and gunboats—were broadside vessels, moved by canvas which was carried commonly on two or three masts; but into the particulars of the sails it is presumed readers will not care to enter. Being thus homogeneous in general characteristics, the ships of this era were divided commonly into three principal classes, each of which had subdivisions; but it was recognized then, as it is now in theory though too little in practice, that such multiplication of species is harmful, and our forerunners, by a process of gradual elimination, had settled down upon certain clearly defined medium types.

The smallest of the three principal classes of fighting-ships were called sloops-of-war, or corvettes. These had sometimes two masts, sometimes three; but the particular feature that differentiated them was that they had but one row of guns in broadside, on an uncovered deck. The offices discharged by this class of vessels were various, but in the apprehension of the writer they may be considered rightly as being above all the protectors or destroyers of commerce in transit.

The frigate stood next in order of power above the corvette, with which it might also be said to have blended; for although in the frigate class there were two, or at the most three, rates that predominated vastly in numbers over all the rest, yet the name covered many differing degrees of force. The distinguishing feature of the frigate was that it carried one complete row of guns upon a covered deck —upon a deck, that is, which had another deck over it. On this upper or spar deck there were also guns—more or fewer—but lighter in weight than those on the covered deck, usually styled the main-deck. The two principal classes of frigates at the beginning of this century were the 32-gun and the 38-gun. That is, they carried nominally sixteen or nineteen guns on each side; but the enumeration is misleading, except as a matter of comparison, for guns of some classes were not counted. Ships generally had a few more cannon than their rate implied. The United States 32-gun frigate *Essex*, for example, carried at first twenty-six long twelves on the main-deck, with sixteen carronades and two chase guns on the spar-deck. Above these two classes came the 44-gun frigate, a very powerful rate, which was favored by the United States navy and received a development of strength then unprecedented.

Being such as here described, the frigate was essentially, though not exclusively, the appendage of a fleet of line-of-battle ships. Wars are decided not by com-

merce destroying nor by raids, however vexatious, but by fleets and armies, by great organized masses—that is, by crushing, not by harassment. But ships-of-the-line, to perform their function, must keep together, both when cruising and when on the field of battle, in order to put forth their strength in combination. The innumerable detached services that must be discharged for every great organized force need for a fleet to be done by vessels of inferior strength, yet so strong that they cannot be intercepted or driven off lightly by every whipper-snapper of an armed ship that comes along. Frigates and sloops have disappeared in name and form, in motive power and in armament. Their essential functions remain, and will remain while war lasts.

In the fleet-ship, likewise the ship-of-the-line, as the opening of the nineteenth century styled the class of vessel known in the closing days as the battle-ship, our predecessors had reached a mean conclusion. The line-of-battle ship, or the ship-of-the-line, as more usually called, differed from the frigate generically, in that it had two or more covered decks. There were one of two cases of ships with four decks, but, as a rule, three were the extreme; and ships-of-the-line were roughly classed as two or three deckers. Under these heads two-deckers carried in their two centuries of history from fifty to eighty-four guns; three-deckers from ninety to 120. The increase in number of guns, resulting, as it did, from increase of size, was not the sole gain of ships-of-the-line. The bigger ships got, the heavier were their timbers, the thicker their planking, the more impenetrable, therefore, their sides. There was a gain, in short, of defensive as well as offensive strength, analogous to the protection given by armor. "As the enemy's ships were big," wrote a renowned British admiral, "they took a great deal of drubbing."

Between the great extremes of strength indicated by fifty and 120 guns—whose existence at one and the same time was the evidence of blind historical development, rather than of intelligent relative processes—the navy of a century ago had settled upon a mean, to appreciate which the main idea and purport of the ship-of-the-line must be grasped. The essential function of the ship "of the line" was, as the name implies, to act in combination with other ships in a line of battle. To do this was needed not only fighting power but manœuvring ability—speed and handiness — and in order that these qualities might approach homogeneousness throughout the fleet, and so promote action in concert, the acceptance of a mean type was essential. To carry three decks of guns, a ship had to expose above water a side disproportionately high relatively to her length, her depth, and her hold upon the water. She consequently drifted rapidly when her side was turned to the wind; while, if her length was increased, and so her hold on the water, she needed more time and room to tack and to wear—that is, to turn around. Ships of this class also were generally—though not necessarily—slow.

A hundred years ago batteries of ships were composed of two principal classes of guns: the long gun and the short gun, or carronade. The difference between these lay in the way the weight of metal allowed for each was utilized. The long gun, as its name implies, was comparatively long and thick, and threw a small ball with a heavy charge of powder. The ball, therefore, flew swiftly, and had a long range. A carronade of the same weight was short and comparatively thin, could use only a small charge of powder, lest it burst, and threw a large ball. Its shot, therefore, moved slowly and had short range. Fired at a target—a ship's side—within range of both guns, the shot from the long gun penetrated quickly, the wood had not time to splinter badly, and a clean hole was the result. The carronade's shot, on the contrary, being both larger and slower, penetrated with difficulty, all the surrounding wood felt the strain and broke up into splinters, leaving a large jagged hole, if the shot got through. These effects were called respectively piercing and smashing, and are reproduced, in measure, upon targets representing the side of a modern iron-clad. They have been likened familiarly to the effect of a pistol-ball and of a stone upon a window-pane: the one goes through clean, the other crashes.

The smashing of the carronades, when fully realized, was worse than penetration,

and was greatly dreaded; but, on the other hand, a ship which feared them in an opponent might keep out of their range. This expedient was so effective that carronades, which did great damage until their tactics were understood, gradually fell into disfavor. Nevertheless, they remained in use till after the peace of 1815. In 1814 the battery of the United States steamship *Essex* was chiefly carronades, and their inadequate range was a large factor in her defeat.

At the period in question guns of all sorts fired only non-explosive projectiles, solid or hollow shot. The destructive shell of the present day was used only by pieces called mortars, in vertical firing, which will be spoken of further on. Such were not mounted on the ships of the fleet generally, nor used against shipping, except when packed in a small harbor. They did not enter into naval warfare proper. The ram and the torpedo of present warfare were unknown. On the other hand, there was practised a form of fighting which is thought now to have disappeared forever — namely, boarding and fighting hand-to-hand on the deck. Even then, however, boarding did not decide the main issue of a sea-fight, except occasionally in very small vessels. The deck of a large and fresh ship was not to be reached easily. Boarding was like the cavalry charge that routs a wavering line; the ship had been beaten at the guns before it occurred.

The real fighting was done by the long guns and carronades disposed in the broadsides. Besides rapidity and precision of fire, always invaluable, the two opponents sought advantage of position by manœuvring. They closed, or they kept apart, according to their understanding of the other's weight and kind of battery. Each tried, when possible, to lie across the bow or the stern of the enemy, for then his guns ranged from end to end of the hostile ship, while the latter's broadside could not reply. Failing this extreme advantage of position, the effort was made so to place one's self that the opponent's guns could not bear—for they swept only a few degrees before and abaft the broadside —while your own could. If this also was impossible, the contestants lay side to side at a greater or less distance, and the affair became an artillery duel.

Contest of Armor and Projectile.—The modern contest began with the introduction of horizontal shell fire in the third decade of the century. This term must be explained. It has been said that all ships' guns up to 1815 threw non-explosive projectiles. In practice this is true; although Nelson alludes to certain shell supplied to him for trial, which he was unwilling to use because he wished not to burn his prizes, but to take them alive. A shell is a hollow projectile filled with powder, the idea of which is that upon reaching the enemy it will burst into several pieces, each capable of killing a man, and the flame not impossibly setting woodwork on fire.

The destructiveness of shell from ordinary guns was so obvious, especially for forts to use against wooden ships, that the difficulties were gradually overcome, and horizontal shell fire was introduced soon after the cessation of wars allowed men time for thought and change. But although the idea was accepted and the fact realized, practice changed slowly, as it tends to do in the absence of emergency. In the attack on Vera Cruz, in 1848, Farragut was present, and was greatly impressed, as with a novelty, by the effect of what he called the "shell shot," a hybrid term which aptly expresses the transition state of men's minds at the time.

The Crimean War followed, and in 1854 the wooden steamships-of-the-line of the allies, vessels identical in fighting characteristics with those of Trafalgar, attempted to silence masonry works at Sebastopol. Though the disaster was not so great, the lesson of Sinope was reaffirmed. Louis Napoleon, a thoughtful man though scarcely a man of action, had foreseen the difficulty, and had already directed the construction of five floating batteries which were to carry armor. Before the war ended these vessels attacked the forts at Kinburn, which they compelled to surrender, losing, themselves, no men except by shells that entered the gun ports. Their armor was not pierced.

Horizontal shell fire had called for iron armor, and the two, as opposing factors, were now established in the recognition of men. The contest between the two sums up the progression and the fluctuations

of military ideas which have resulted in the battle-ship of to-day, which, as the fleet-ship, remains the dominant factor in naval warfare, not only in actual fact but in present probability. From the first feeble beginnings at Kinburn to the present time, although the strife has waxed greatly in degree, it remains unchanged in principle and in kind. To exclude the shell, because, starting as one projectile, it became many after penetration, in what does it differ from excluding the rapid-fire gun, whose projectiles are many from the first, and penetrate singly?

There occurred, however, one singular development, an aberration from the normal line of advance, the chief manifestation of which, from local and temporary conditions, was in our own country. This was the transient predominance of the monitor type and idea; the iron-clad vessel, with very few very heavy guns, mounted in one or two circular revolving turrets, protected by very heavy armor. The monitor type embodied two ideas. The first was the extreme of defensive power, owing to the smallness of the target and the thickness of its armor—the hull of the vessel rising but little above the water—the turret was substantially the only target. The second was an extreme compression of offensive power, the turret containing two of the heaviest guns of the day, consequently guns of the heaviest penetration, which could fire, not in one direction, nor in several, but in all directions as the turret revolved, and which were practically the sole armament of the ship. The defensive power of the monitor was absolute up to the extreme resisting endurance of its armor. Its offensive power must be considered relatively to the target to which its guns were to be opposed. If much in excess of that target's resistance, there was waste of power. Actually in our Civil War monitors were opposed to fortifications except in one or two instances when they had to contend with the imperfect structures which the Confederates could put afloat. The target, therefore, was not in excess of their gun power. Moreover, being for coast warfare, the monitor then was necessarily of small draught and small tonnage. Her battery weight, therefore, must be small, and consequently lent itself to concentration into two guns, just as the battery weight of a schooner a century since found its best disposition in one long traversing gun.

This was the infancy period of the iron-clad ship. The race between guns and armor was barely begun, and manufacturing processes still were crude. As these improved, with astounding rapidity, the successful production of rifled cannon of ever-increasing dimensions and penetrative force imposed an increased armor protection, which at the first was obtained chiefly by an increase of thickness—*i. e.*, of weight. As guns and armor got heavier, ships had to be bigger to carry them, and, if bigger, of course longer. But the monitor idea, admirably suited to small ships, had now fast hold of men's minds—in England especially, for the United States lapsed into naval somnolence after the war—and it was carried irreflectively into vessels of huge dimensions whose hulls rose much above the water. Weight for weight, the power of the gun outstripped the resistance of armor, and it soon became evident that even in a large ship perfect protection could be given only to a part of the structure. Passing over intermediate steps, the extreme and final development of the monitor idea was reached in the *Inflexible*, planned in 1876 by the British admiralty, built in the following years, and still in service. This vessel was of 11,880 tons displacement. She was 320 feet long, and of that length only the central 110 feet had protection, but that was by armor 2 feet thick, while armored partitions extended from each end of this side belt across the vessel, forming a box 110 feet long by 74 broad. Within this box were two turrets, each with 16 inches of armor, and carrying two guns which threw a shell of a ton weight. The first monitor has been called an epoch-making ship, for she began an era. The *Inflexible* was also epoch-making, for she closed the era of the monitor pure and simple.

While the *Inflexible* was building there was born the idea whose present maturity enforces the abandonment of the pure monitor, except for vessels comparatively small and for special purposes. Machine guns, the Gatling, and the mitrailleuse were already known, and the principle was being applied to throw projectiles of

a pound weight and over, which were automatically loaded and fired, requiring only to be aimed. Upon these followed the rapid-fire gun, of weight greatly exceeding theirs, the principle of which may be said to be that it is loaded by hand, but with ammunition so prepared and mechanism for loading so simple and expeditious as to permit a rate of firing heretofore unparalleled. The highest extension of this principle is reached in the 5-inch gun, up to which size the cartridge and the projectile make a single package called fixed ammunition, which is placed by one motion. Together they weigh 95 lbs., about as much as an average man can handle in a seaway, the projectile itself weighing 50 lbs. There are, it is true, 6-inch rapid-fire guns, but in them the cartridge and shell are placed separately, and it is questionable whether such increase of effect, through greater weight, as they give is not gained at a loss of due rapidity.

In the strife of guns with armor, increase of power in guns, outstripping continually the increase of resistance in armor, called for bigger ships to bear the increased armor weight, till the latter could not possibly be placed all over the ship's body. Hence the exposed target, upon which plays the smaller battery of rapid-fire guns.

To comprehend fundamentally the subsequent development, we must recur to the rudimentary idea that a ship-of-war possesses two chief factors, motive force and fighting force, the latter being composed of guns mainly and of men. Corresponding to these two chief powers there were of old, and there are still, two vulnerable elements, two targets, upon one or the other of which hostile effort logically and practically must be directed. A century ago the French, aiming at sails and spars, sought the destruction of the motive force; the British directed their fire upon the guns and men. In strict analogy now, the heavy guns seek the motive power, over which the heaviest armor is concentrated; the rapid-fire guns, searching the other portions of the ship, aim at the guns and men there stationed. The logical outcome of these leading ideas is realized in the present battle-ships as follows: There are two turrets, protected by armor, the thickest that can be given them, considering the other weights the ship has to carry, and of the highest resisting quality that processes of manufacture can develop. Armor of similar character and weight protects the sides about the engines. In each turret are guns whose power corresponds to the armor which protects them. Their proper aim—not, of course, always reached—is the heavy armored part of the enemy, chiefly the engines, the motive power. When they strike outside of this target, as often must happen, there is excess of blow, and consequent waste. The turrets are separated, fore and aft, by a distance as great as possible, to minimize the danger of a single shot or any other local incident disabling both. The fact that the ends of ships, being comparatively sharp, are less waterborne and cannot support extreme weights, chiefly limits this severance of the turrets. Between the two, and occasionally before or abaft them, is distributed the broadside rapid fire of the ship, which in its development is in contradistinction to the compressed fire of the monitor. This fire is rapid because the guns are many and because individually they can fire fast. Thus, the turret gun, 12 or 13 inches in bore, fires once in five minutes; the 5-inch rapid-fire gun thrice in one minute. The rapid-fire battery aims outside of the heaviest armor. When it strikes that, unless it chance to enter a gun port, its effect is lost; but as much the greater part of the ship is penetrable by it, the chance of wasting power is less than in the case of the heavier guns. As most of a ship's company are outside the protection of the heaviest armor, the rapid-fire gun aims, as did the British in the old line-of-battle ship, at the personnel of the enemy.

The one experience of war which ships really contemporary have had was in the battle of the Yalu. Its teachings lose some value from the fact that the well-drilled Japanese used their weapons to advantage, while the Chinese were ill-trained; still, some fair inferences can be made. The Japanese had a great many rapid-fire guns, with few very heavy ones, and their vessels were not battle-ships properly so-called. The Chinese, besides other vessels, had two battle-ships with

heavy armor and heavy guns. Victory remained with the Japanese. In the opinion of the writer two probable conclusions can be reached: That rapid-fire guns in due proportion to the entire battery will beat down a ship dependent mainly upon turret guns; that is, between two ships whose batteries are alike the issue of the contest will depend upon the one or the other gaining first a predominance of rapid fire. That done, the turret guns of the predominant ship will give the final blows to the engines and turrets of the other, whose own turret guns cannot be used with the necessary deliberation under the preponderant storm of projectiles now turned upon them. The other conclusion, even more certain than the first, is that rapid-fire guns alone, while they may determine an action, cannot make it decisive. Despite the well-established superiority of the Japanese rapid fire in that action, the Chinese battle-ships, though overborne, were not taken. Their heaviest armor being unpierced, the engines and turret guns remained effective, and they withdrew unmolested.

The battle-ship constituted as described remains for the present the fighting-ship upon which the issues of war will depend. The type is accepted by all the leading naval states, though with considerable variations in size. As regards the latter feature, the writer believes that the enormous tonnage recently given is excessive, and that the reasons which support it, too numerous and various to be enumerated at length, have the following fundamental fault: they look too much to the development of the individual ship and too little to the fact that the prime requisite of the battle-ship is facility for cooperating with other ships of its own type —facility in manœuvring together, facility in massing, facility also in subdividing when occasion demands. It may be remarked, too, that the increase of size has gone much more to increase of defensive power than of offensive—a result so contrary to the universal teachings of war as of itself to suggest pausing.

Does the present hold out any probabilities of important changes in the near future, of revolutionary changes? No. For twenty-five or thirty years now we have been expecting from the ram and from the torpedo results which would displace the gun from its supremacy of centuries. Those results, however, are not yet visible. No one disputes the tremendous effects of the ram and of the torpedo when successfully used; but I believe I am correct in saying that the great preponderance of professional opinion does not attribute to them a certainty, or an approach to certainty, impairing the predominance of the gun.

Neither the torpedo nor the ram is likely to overtake the gun. The torpedo relies mainly upon stealth, the ram mainly upon a happy chance for effective use. Both stealth and chance have their place in war; stratagem and readiness, each in place, may contribute much. But the decisive issues of war depend upon the handling of masses with celerity and precision, according to certain general principles of recognized universality. Afloat, such massed force, to be wielded accurately and rapidly, must consist of units not too numerous because of their smallness—as torpedo craft would be—nor too unwieldy because of their size. We may not be able to determine yet, in advance of prolonged experience of war, just what the happy mean may be corresponding in principle to the old seventy-four, but we may be reasonably sure that it will be somewhere in the ranks of the present battle-ships; and that in the range, accuracy, and rapidity of their gun-fire—especially when acting in fleets—will be found a protection which the small vessels that rely upon the torpedo or ram alone will not be able to overcome, though they may in rare instances elude.

NAVIGATION ACTS

Navigation Acts. The first navigation act that affected the American colonies was an ordinance of the British Parliament in 1646, by which all goods, merchandise, and necessaries for the English-American plantations were exempted from duty for three years, on condition that no colonial vessel be suffered to lade any

goods of the growth of the plantations and carry them to a foreign port, excepting in English bottoms. The preamble to the ordinance mentioned "Virginia, Bermudas, Barbadoes, and other places of America." In 1663 Parliament passed an act for securing the monopoly of the trade of the English-American colonies for the benefit of the English shipping interest, then a powerful factor in politics. It prohibited the importation into any of the English colonies of any commodities of the growth, production, and manufacture of Europe, unless they were shipped from the British Islands in English-built vessels. For the enforcement of the navigation acts courts of vice-admiralty were established throughout the colonies in 1697, with power to try admiralty and revenue cases without a jury—the model of our existing United States district courts. These were strongly resisted, especially in the chartered colonies. The privy council maintained the doctrine that nothing prevented the King from establishing an admiralty jurisdiction within every dominion of the crown, chartered or not.

The British navy was employed to enforce the Navigation Act in the colonies in 1763. Admiral Colville, commanding the naval forces on the American coast from the St. Lawrence to the capes of Florida, became the head of a new corps of revenue officers. Each captain of his squadron was furnished with a custom-house commission and instructions from the lords of the admiralty, and was empowered to enter harbors, after taking the usual oaths to perform the duties of custom-house officers, and to seize persons suspected of being engaged in illicit trade. This measure aroused the most violent opposition in the colonies.

Nearly all the nations of Europe, after the downfall of Napoleon and the return of peace, adopted a very discriminating policy in favor of their own shipping. Of the effect of this policy the navigating interest of the United States loudly complained; and, finally, by the act of March 1, 1816, copied from the famous English Navigation Act, the Americans retaliated. Importations by foreign ships were to be limited to the produce of their respective countries—a provision not to apply except to nations having a similar regulation. The coasting-trade, hitherto open to foreign vessels, was now restricted to those American built and owned. To promote the increase of American seamen, all coasting and fishing vessels were required to have crews three-fourths of whom were Americans, and all registered vessels crews of whom two-fifths were Americans, under penalty of an additional tonnage duty, and, in case of fishing-vessels, forfeiture of the fishing bounties. On April, 1818, an act was passed closing the ports of the United States against British vessels from any British colonial port into which American vessels were not admitted. This policy, which totally failed of its object, was kept up for twelve years, and then abandoned.

History of Legislation.—The following résumé of the navigation laws of the United States, and the development of the ship-building industry under them, is contributed by Charles H. Cramp, president of the Cramp & Sons Ship and Engine Building Company, of Philadelphia, Pa.

When one traces the history of the navigation laws of the United States, beginning with the act of Dec. 31, 1792, which closed American registry to foreign-built vessels except as to prizes taken in war, down to the present time, there appears cumulative evidence that the policy had its origin in the spirit of national independence, commercial as well as political. Superficial students and shallow reasoners associate our navigation laws with the doctrine of protection, as embodied in our tariff system. But, in point of fact, there is no association between them.

The object of the Revolutionary fathers in enacting the prohibitive navigation law of 1792 was to provide for the development and perpetuity of ship-building in the United States as an indispensable condition of commercial independence and as an unfailing nursery of naval strength. At that time there was no need of protection to American ship-building, in the tariff sense of the term.

The *Pennsylvania Packet*, in its issue of May 7, 1790, contained the following review of the then comparative state of ship-

building in America and Europe, from the financial point of view:

"Ship-building is an art for which the United States are peculiarly qualified by their skill in the construction and by the materials with which their country abounds. . . .

"They build oak vessels on lower terms than the cheapest European vessels of fir, pine, and larch. The cost of a white-oak ship in New England is about 24 Mexican dollars per ton, fitted for sea; a fir vessel costs in the ports of the Baltic 35 Mexican dollars per ton; though the American oak ship is much safer and more durable. The maximum cost of a vessel of the highest class of American live oak and cedar, which with salted timbers will last thirty years without repair, is only 36 to 38 dollars per ton in our different ports; while an oak ship, fitted in a similar manner, in the cheapest ports of England, Holland, or France, will cost 55 to 60 dollars per ton."

This relative state of the first cost of ships existed at the date of the passage of the prohibitory law in 1792. Hence, it could not have been a merely protective measure, in the tariff sense, because under the conditions stated by the *Pennsylvania Packet* there could have been no competition.

The policy of the fathers had a broader basis, a deeper foundation, and a wider scope of patriotism and foresight. They realized that American-built ships were not only less costly, but better and more efficient vehicles of commerce than contemporary foreign ships. They knew that, at the then prevailing rates of cost, it would be impossible for any American merchant to import a newly built foreign ship. Therefore, the immediate object of their law of 1792 could not have been else than to prohibit the purchase and registry of old and partly worn - out foreign ships, and thereby to maintain in our merchant marine the high standard of superiority due to the greater skill of American builders and the better grade of American materials. But this was not their only purpose. With foresight amounting to prophecy they seemed to divine the vicissitudes of the future. So at the very beginning of the federal government they laid this navigation law of 1792 as one of the foundation-stones of our domestic polity for all time, and wholly indifferent to mere economic conditions of the day in which they lived.

During the years that have elapsed since George Washington approved the Navigation Law, the conditions of shipbuilding in America, relatively to those prevailing abroad, have undergone many vicissitudes. At any time between 1790 and 1840 the conditions set forth in the review quoted from the *Pennsylvania Packet* prevailed, and the United States continued to enjoy the advantage of her natural resources and the superior skill of her naval architects and shipwrights. But, as England's supply of timber vanished, her production of metals increased, which fact naturally caused the evolution of the iron ship.

The practicability of the use of iron in ship-construction had been seen long before it became a commercial fact; but while the system was early known, the development of proper structural devices was of slower progress. As early as 1823 Captain de Montgery, of the French navy, published a valuable work entitled *Mémoire sur les Navires en Fer*, in the form of papers in the *Annales de l'Industrie Nationale et Étrangère*, which were subsequently reprinted in a small book in 1824. Captain Montgery introduced his work with the remark that "one might, perhaps, trace the origin of iron vessels to an invention of Demetrius Poliorcetes when he was besieging Rhodes, 304 years before the present era."

After some other interesting historical researches, Captain Montgery pointed out that the chief obstacle to successful shipbuilding in iron at that time (1823–24) was due to the lack of suitable machinery for working and shaping the material. This, he said, could not be done by hand as in the case of wooden ships, and he left the matter of inventing or adapting the necessary mechanical appliances for metal construction to the skill of practical shipbuilders.

These achievements came along quite slowly during the twenty years immediately following Captain Montgery's suggestion. The capacity of plate and shape mills was limited to small sizes and light weights. Punching, bending, and other ship-shed appliances were crude and costly. The old wood-working shipwrights did not at first take kindly to the new material. In fact, the first iron hulls were

built by boiler-makers, on plans prepared by the wood-ship builders.

In this country the development of the iron industry was much slower than in England during the period under consideration, so that, by the time the actual supremacy of the iron ship became established, we were far behind that country in all the essentials for rapid and economical construction. This state of things turned the tables as to first cost, besides relegating the wooden ship to the past. As soon as the English found that they could build iron ships cheaper than we could, and that their iron ships were commercially superior to our wooden ones, they at once began to clamor for repeal of our navigation laws. They rapidly pushed their way into the markets of the rest of the world, building iron ships at great profit to themselves for nearly every nation but our own, and they naturally desired to overrun ours too.

Then began a series of systematic, organized assaults on our navigation laws, always prompted from English sources and gradually adopted as a policy by certain of our law-makers. These assaults, though made with vigor and sometimes adroitly managed, failed in every case. Whenever the question came to a vote, it was always found that a majority in one or both Houses of Congress had inherited the patriotism of their ancestors of 1792.

Had any of these assaults been successful to the extent of wiping the act of 1792 from the pages of the Revised Statutes, there would not now be a first-class shipyard in existence on our soil, and we would have been, like Chile and Japan, forced to dicker on the banks of the Clyde for the construction of our new navy, if we had one at all. But aside from the desire of English ship-builders to create a new market for their product by opening our registry, there is a political cause operating with even greater force to make free American registry a desideratum to England. It lies in the threat of maritime war to which European nations are constantly exposed.

At the time of the Franco-German War of 1870–71, even so sturdy a patriot as General Grant, then President, was persuaded for a time that it would be a good thing for our commerce as a neutral nation to permit American registry of foreign-built vessels, the theory being that many vessels of nations which might become involved in the struggle would seek the asylum of our flag.

Actuated by powerful New York influences, which found expression through Roscoe Conkling, Edwin D. Morgan, and Hamilton Fish, already conspicuously hostile to the American merchant marine, General Grant in a special message recommended that Congress enact legislation to that end. This proposition was antagonized by Judge Kelly, of Pennsylvania —always at the front when American interests were threatened—in one of his most powerful efforts, couched in the vehement eloquence of which he was master, which impressed General Grant so much that he abandoned that policy and subsequently adhered to the existing system.

I will not stop here to point out in detail the tremendous political and diplomatic advantage which England would enjoy when dealing with other maritime powers if she could have always at hand an asylum for the lame ducks of her commercial fleet in time of war. Her ocean greyhounds, that could either escape the enemy's cruisers or be readily converted into cruisers themselves, might remain under her flag; while all her slow freighters, tramps, and obsolete passenger boats of past eras would be transferred by sham sales to our flag, under which they could pursue their traffic in safety during the war under peace rates of insurance, and without any material diversion of their earnings, which would of course be increased by war freight rates, returning to their former allegiance at the end of the war. The lack of such an asylum amounts to a perpetual bond to keep the peace.

From the end of the Civil War to about 1880 there was but feeble effort to revive ship-building in this country. All our energies of capital and enterprise were directed to the extension of railways in every direction, to the repair of the war ravages in the South, to the settlement of the vast territories of the West—in a word, to purely domestic development; pending which, England was

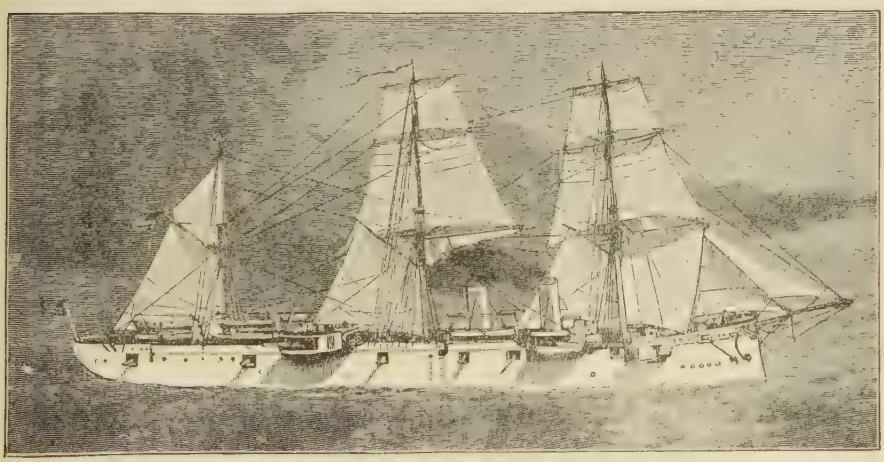
by common consent left to enjoy her ocean monopoly.

Such was the state of affairs in 1883–85, when the adoption of the policy of naval reconstruction offered to American ship-building the first encouragement it had seen in a quarter of a century.

When we began to build the new navy, every English journal, from the London *Times* down, pooh-poohed the idea that a modern man-of-war could be built in an American yard, modern high-powered engines in an American machine-shop, or modern breech-loading cannon in an American forge. Many of the English ship-builders rubbed their hands in actual anticipation of orders from this government for the ships and guns we needed, and they blandly assured us that they would give us quite as favorable terms as were accorded to China, Japan, and Chile. And, to their shame be it said, there were officers of our navy who not only adopted this view, but did all they could to commit our government to the pernicious policy.

In 1885, when Secretary Whitney took control of the Navy Department, the efforts of English ship-builders to secure at least a share of the work were renewed. By this time the English were willing to admit that the hulls of modern ships could be built in the United States; but they were satisfied that our best policy would be to buy the necessary engines, cannon, and armor from them. Secretary Whitney, however, promptly decided that the only article of foreign production which the new navy needed was the plans of vessels for comparison. This was wise, because it placed in the hands of our builders the results of the most mature experience abroad, at comparatively small cost. But one of the earliest and firmest decisions of Mr. Whitney was that our naval vessels, machinery and all, must be built at home and of domestic material.

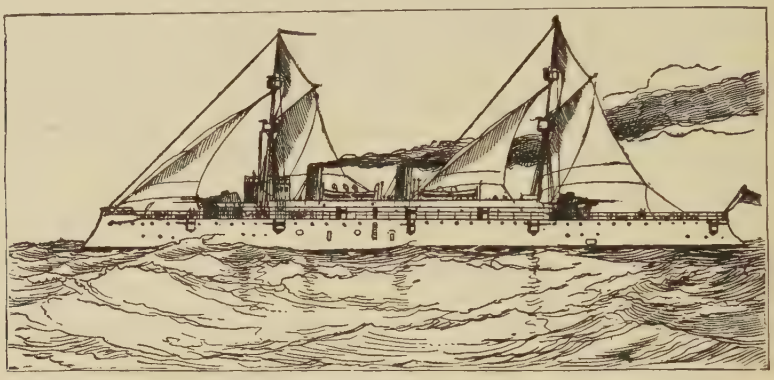
The efforts of the English builders to get the engine-work for our new navy were much more serious and formidable than is generally known. A prominent member of the House committee on naval affairs proposed an amendment to a pending naval bill empowering the Secretary at his discretion to contract abroad for the construction of propelling-machinery for our naval ships. The language was, of course, general, but every one knows that the term "abroad" in this sense would be synonymous with Great Britain, and nothing more.



UNITED STATES PROTECTED CRUISER CHICAGO, ONE OF THE FIRST SHIPS OF THE NEW NAVY, AS SHE APPEARED WHEN FIRST BUILT.

Mr. Whitney promptly met this proposition with a protest in the shape of a letter to the naval committee dated Feb.

27, 1886. He said that, so far as he was concerned, he would not avail himself of such a power if granted. There was no occasion for such power, and it could have no effect except to keep American builders in suspense and thereby augment the difficulty of obtaining capital for the enlargement of their facilities to meet the national requirements. Mr. Whitney's protest was so vigorous that the proposition died from its effects in the committee, and has been wellnigh forgotten. The proposer himself became satisfied that he had been misled by the representations of naval officers who were under English influence, and did not press his amendment.



A UNITED STATES PROTECTED CRUISER AT SEA.

I have brought these facts forward for the purpose of emphasizing my declaration that the promotive influence behind every movement against our navigation laws is of British origin, and that whenever you put a pin through a free-ship bill you prick an Englishman.

The portion of Mr. Whitney's letter referring to the proposed free-engine clause in the naval bill of 1886 was as follows:

"I think our true policy is to borrow the ideas of our neighbors as far as they are thought to be in advance of ours, and give them to our ship-builders in the shape of plans; and, having this object in view, I have been anxious to acquire detailed drawings of the latest machinery in use abroad, and should feel at liberty to spend more in the same way in getting hold of the latest things as far as possible for the purpose of utilizing them. We have made important accumulations in this line during the last six months. I think I ought to say to the committee that I have placed myself in communication with some of the principal marine-engine builders of the country within the last three months for the purpose of conferring with them upon this subject. I detailed two officers of the navy—a chief engineer and a line officer—who, under my directions, visited the principal establishments in the East. They recognize that in the matter of engines for naval ships we are quite inexperienced as compared with some other countries. It is this fact, doubtless, which the committee has in view in authorizing the purchase and importation of engines for one of the vessels authorized to be constructed under this act. If the committee will permit me to make the suggestion, I find myself quite satisfied, after consultation with people engaged in the industry in this country, that it would not be necessary for me to avail of that discretionary power in order to produce machines of the most advanced character. Our marine-engine builders in general express their inability at the present moment to design the latest and most approved type of engines for naval vessels —an inability arising from the fact that they have not been called upon to do anything of importance in that line. At the same time, they state that if they are given the necessary time, and are asked to offer designs in competition, they

would acquaint themselves with the state of the art abroad and here, and would prepare to offer to the government designs embodying the latest improvements in the art. And they are ready to construct at the present time anything that can be built anywhere else if the plans are furnished. As I find no great difficulty in the way of purchasing plans (in fact, there is an entire readiness to sell to us on the part of the engine-builders abroad), I think the solution of the question will be not very difficult, although it may require some time and a little delay."

The wisdom of Secretary Whitney's policy needs no eulogy, beyond the history of the development of steam-engineering in the United States. In fact, no other eulogy could be a tenth part as eloquent as that history is.

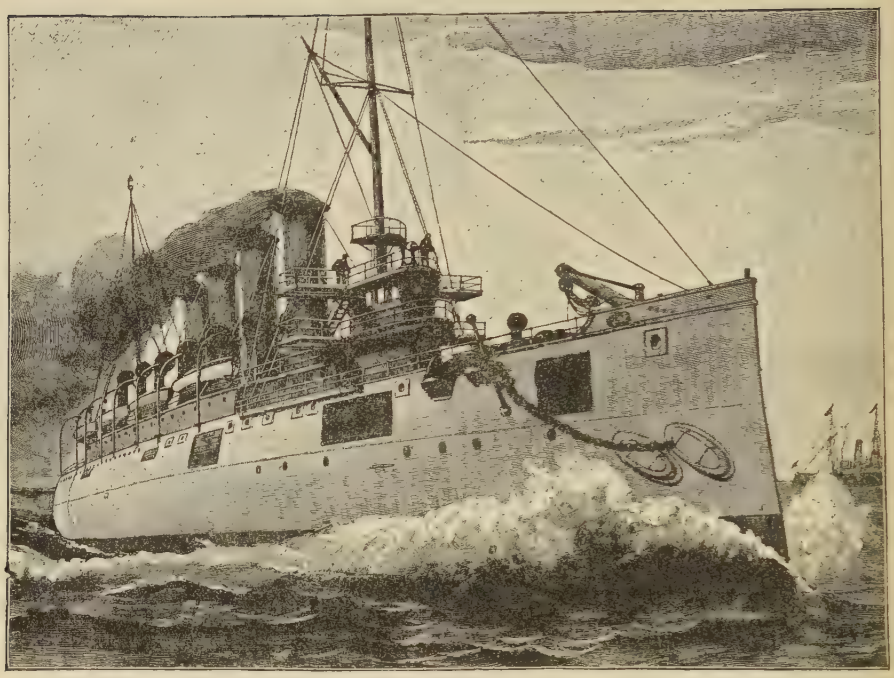
In 1886 we were content to purchase engine plans abroad. In 1894 we exhibited to the world the marvellous machinery of the *New York*, the *Olympia*, and the *Columbia;* not to speak of the still higher development that was being wrought out for the new greyhounds of the American transatlantic line.

The engines of the *New York*, *Olympia*, and *Columbia* have no equals, either in material, workmanship, or performance. Does any one suppose they would ever have been built if Secretary Whitney had adopted the policy of buying our naval engines in England, thereby devoting the resources of the American treasury to promote a British monopoly? No. In their stead we would have, perhaps, the engines of the *Blake*, guaranteed to develop 20,000 indicated horse-power, and accepted on a performance of 13,000; or the engines of the *Vulcan*, with deficiency of performance even more pitiable.

The policy of Secretary Whitney was in fact an echo of the sturdy patriotism that framed the act of Dec. 31, 1792, dictated by the same impulse of national independence, and conceived in the same aspiration of patriotic pride.

In the face of this record so fresh and recent, the same old demand for English free ships is still heard in our midst, promoted by the same old lobby and pressed

UNITED STATES PROTECTED CRUISER OLYMPIA.



UNITED STATES PROTECTED CRUISER COLUMBIA.

on the same old lines. Are we never to hear the last of it? Is there to be a perennial supply of American legislators willing to promote a British industry by destroying an American one? To all history, to all logic, they oppose a single phrase: "Let us buy ships where they are cheapest." Well, if national independence is valueless, and if everything is to be subordinated to cheapness, why not get our laws made in the House of Commons? The members of the House of Commons legislate for nothing. Senators and Representatives charge $5,000 a year for their service, besides stationery allowance and mileage. The House of Commons makes laws cheaper than our Congress does. Our ships and our capacity to create them are as much a symbol of independence as our laws are; and if it is good policy to get the former where they are cheapest, why not get the latter on the same terms?

In November, 1893, I contributed a paper to the *Proceedings of the American Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers*, in which I stated that, notwithstanding the privilege embodied in section 8 of the tariff to import material of foreign production free of duty for use in the construction of vessels designed for the foreign trade, I had not taken advantage of it, but had placed orders for many thousand tons of steel with American rolling-mills, forges, and foundries.

I had to pay something more for American material than British material would have cost delivered here, but there were certain mechanical and financial considerations involved which in my judgment more than offset this disparity. Hence we may dismiss the question of material and consider only that of labor, which represents a very large percentage of the cost of a ship.

In this particular the English builders have an undoubted advantage over us, as will appear from the subjoined tables of comparative wages embracing twenty occupations. I have not depended on the consular reports, but have compiled them through my own sources of information

from the actual pay-rolls respectively of British ship-yards and our own. In reducing British wages to our standard I have taken the shilling as the equivalent of our quarter of a dollar. I have also brought all wages to a weekly basis, taking the average yearly rate of fifty-six hours to the week in the British yards:

	British rate.	American rate.
Pattern-makers	$9.00	$18.00
Machinists	8.50	15.00
Riveters	7.50	12.00
Calkers and chippers	7.80	15.00
Beam and angle smiths	8.40	15.00
Holders-on	4.20	9.00
Fitters-up	7.80	15.00
Ship-carpenters	9.60	18.00
Joiners	9.00	16.50
Painters	9.60	18.00
Ship-shed machine men	7.20	15.00
Furnace-men	6.00	10.80
Riggers	7.20	11.00
Plumbers	9.60	19.50
Drillers	6.40	11.00
Sheet-iron workers	8.50	15.00
Coppersmiths	8.60	18.00
Moulders, iron	9.00	14.50
Moulders, brass	9.00	15.00
Laborers	4.20	$8 to $9

These figures are taken direct from the books of representative ship-yards in the United States and Great Britain. The comparison tells its own story. Brushing aside sophistry and cant, we have in front of us a plain proposition, the logic of which no man can evade. It is simply this:

A vote for English free ships means a vote to reduce the wages of American pattern-makers from $18 a week to the British rate of $9; of American machinists from $15 a week to $8.50; of American boilermakers from $15 a week to $8.50; of American sheet-iron workers from $15 a week to $8.50; of American coppersmiths from $18 a week to $8.60; of American plumbers and pipe-fitters from $19.50 per week to $9.60; of American carpenters from $18 a week to $9.60; of American drillers from $11 per week to $6.40; of American fitters-up from $15 a week to $7.80; of American riveters from $12 a week to $7.50; of American calkers from $15 a week to $7.80; of American moulders from $15 a week to $9; of American furnace-men from $11 a week to $6; of American painters from $18 a week to $9.60; of American joiners from $16.50 a week to $9, of American common laborers from $9 a week to $4.20.

There is no alternative to these reductions of wages except a total closing of American ship-yards, which of course would reduce all ship-building wages from their present rates to nothing. This is what men mean when they talk about buying ships where they are cheapest. This is what makes ships cheaper in England than here. And this, too, is what makes English ships inferior to American ships, class for class, and rate for rate; it is because $18 a week will buy better skill and greater diligence than $9 or $10 a week in any country or under any flag.

As a collateral argument in favor of free ships we are informed by a report of the Post-office Department that the act of March 3, 1891, providing for ocean mail service in American vessels, has not resulted in any improvement of the merchant marine.

The solemnity with which this information was offered to the country indicates that its authors considered it important. Less than three years had elapsed since that law was enacted. Without reference to its merits as an economic policy, but from the practical point of view, not much progress could be expected in that time, unless merchant fleets are supposed to spring from the brain of Congress full panoplied like Minerva from the brow of Jove. However, a broader survey of the situation shows that there has been material improvement of the merchant marine consequent upon that act.

In conjunction with another act, which created the nucleus of an American line of transatlantic greyhounds, the law of March 3, 1891, within three years caused five new vessels to be under construction, which were in all respects abreast and in many respects ahead of anything then afloat. These vessels were built in conformity to the requirements of the two acts referred to, under a contract duly executed between their owners and the Post-office Department, to go into active effect in October, 1895, for a period of ten years. This was surely progress and improvement, but the foreign mail bureau of the Post-office Department had either overlooked or ignored it through im-

patience with the slow processes inevitable in the production of ships over a tenth of a mile long.

This is somewhat digressive, but it is introduced here by way of preface to the remark that the capacity to build such ships has been attained but recently by any American ship-yard, and hence, unless active hostility to American ship-building be admitted as the motive, it is difficult to conceive the *rationale* of a movement the success of which would be inevitably and almost instantly fatal to the entire industry.

It has been well said that "A great steamship is the grandest triumph of mind over matter." In no other structure appears such a combination of science and skill, such a conspiracy of brain and brawn. When a steamship leaves the yard for her maiden voyage her cost account shows 95 per cent. of the total to the credit of labor. There is no charge for right of way, real estate, or accessories. She is a thing of life, an autonomy within herself, and, once off the land, is for the time being a planet. Her deck is the soil of the nation whose flag she bears. Her freight is not only the commodities of commerce, but human lives. Upon her safety and efficiency constantly hang the hopes and loves of thousands. No other thing made by human hands can appeal to the sentiment of men like a great steamship. From this point of view there is an element of public pride, of patriotic exultation in the national possession of great steamships, and it would seem that cognate pride and exultation ought to be cherished in the national capacity to create them. Such a capacity, after years of disheartening struggle against powerful and vindictive rivalry, has at last been attained and is now being exerted with grand results.

It has been said that even if the English should build all our ships for us, except those for the coastwise trade, American ship-yards would still flourish on the proceeds of the coastwise construction and the repairs. Did the authors of that theory ever see an establishment entirely devoted to the repair of ships that was equipped to build so much as a tug? The Erie Basin Dry-docks in New York are exclusively repair works. Was ever a ship built there? Could one be built there? Certainly not.

As for the resources of the coastwise trade, the state of ship-building in this country in 1884, and before the government came into the market with the new navy, indicates the limit of its possibilities. From 1878 to 1888 there was considerable activity in ship-building for the coastwise trade, resulting in the production of a large amount of tonnage which newly equipped that traffic for a term of years. After 1888 this demand fell off in consequence of having been fully supplied. The total tonnage of new or comparatively new iron steam tonnage employed in the coastwise trade, including colliers and ocean tugs employed in barge-towing, is about 340,000, and this, in the opinion of men qualified to judge, is a fair supply for many years to come.

France, Germany, Holland, Spain, Russia, and Italy, which were formerly large customers of English ship-builders, have in recent years encouraged home ship-building by subvention and commercial discriminations, until their patronage has been almost entirely withdrawn from British yards. So severe has been the distress of English ship-yards under these conditions that quite recently one of them contracted to build a large ship "at cost," in express terms for the sole purpose of keeping their organization together. Even Japan, which in years past poured about $30,000,000 into England's coffers for ships and guns, is now building her own men-of-war.

Denunciation of our navigation laws as "obsolete" is a fashionable fallacy. It is true that they are among the most venerable of our statutes, the Constitution itself antedating them only three years. But I call attention to the fact that the act of Dec. 31, 1792, was quite as much in force from that time to 1860, when our merchant marine was at its zenith of prosperity, as when it became prostrate. This is an historical fact which no one can gainsay. It is therefore not easy to see why a law which promoted such prosperity as our merchant marine enjoyed prior to 1860 should exert an exactly contrary effect more than thirty years afterwards. At any rate, it would require a new school of logic to prove that

it has worked both ways. Denunciation of every business transaction between the government and steamship owners as "subsidy" is also a fashionable fad.

Steamship owners who perform public service by transporting ocean mails undoubtedly expect pay for it; but I am unable to see why a certain sum when paid to a railroad company or a river steamboat for mail-carrying under contract should be called "compensation," and when paid to an ocean steamship company for similar service should be called "subsidy."

The five maritime great powers of Europe—England, France, Germany, Russia, and Italy—during the year 1893 paid £3,331,573 sterling, or, roughly, $16,657,865, for the transportation of their mails by sea. England paid $4,360,000, including the "retainer" of 20 shillings per ton per annum to the vessels enrolled as convertible cruisers for the auxiliary fleet. France paid, including both mail compensation and tonnage bounty, $5,356,000. Germany paid, inclusive of discriminations in taxes, port dues, and light-house fees in favor of ships built in Germany, $1,962,000, of which $1,200,000 went to one company, the North German Lloyd.

In all these cases the transactions are considered as being in the nature of fair compensation for actual services, and no one denounces them as subsidies. It would appear that compensation for service becomes "subsidy" only when paid to an American ship-owner. Summing up, it appears that the actual, practical, valid reasons for the repeal of our navigation laws are:

1. That it would open a new and much-needed market for the product of over-developed English ship-yards.

2. That it would offer to English ship-owners opportunity to unload their obsolete and worn-out tramps from the foot of their list upon our "bargain-hunters," enabling them to recruit at the top with new ships.

3. That it would release England from her bond to keep the peace by opening an asylum for her commercial fleet whenever she might desire to make war on a maritime power.

These reasons are all English.

There are no American reasons.

NAVY OF THE UNITED STATES

Navy of the United States — *Continental Organization.* — Early in the autumn of 1775, Washington called the attention of the Continental Congress to the importance of fitting out naval vessels for the protection of the coast. Before any definite action had been taken, Washington had fitted out five or six armed vessels at Boston to "pick up" some of the British store-ships and transports. On Oct. 13, the Congress authorized the fitting out of a swift-sailing vessel to carry ten carriage-guns and a proportionate number of swivels, with eighty men, for a cruise of three months. On the same day appeared the germ of our Navy Department in a committee appointed to direct marine affairs. This consisted of Silas Deane, John Langdon, and Christopher Gadsden. Stephen Hopkins, Joseph Hewes, Richard Henry Lee, and John Adams were added Oct. 30. The committee was at first styled the "marine committee," and on Dec. 13 it was so modelled as to include one member from each colony represented in the Congress. They had power to appoint all officers below the rank of third lieutenant, and had the control, under the immediate sanction of the Congress, of all naval operations. Their lack of professional knowledge caused many and vexatious mistakes, and the Congress finally resolved to select three persons well skilled in marine affairs to execute the business intrusted to the general committee. The experts constituted what was called "the Continental navy board, or board of assistants of the marine committee," which remained in active operation until the autumn of 1779, when a "board of admiralty" was established, composed of three commissioners not members of the Congress, and two members of that body. This board was subject in all cases to the control of the Congress. There was a secretary who performed a greater share of the actual business of the board. The headquarters of this Navy Department

were at Philadelphia, then the seat of the national government. In 1781 another change took place, when Gen. Alexander McDougall, of New York, was appointed Secretary of the Marine, or Secretary of the Navy, under the old Confederation. A few months afterwards, Robert Morris, the distinguished financier of the Revolution, was appointed a general agent of marine, and an admiralty seal was adopted, composed of an escutcheon with a chevron of stripes alternate red and white, an anchor below, and a ship under full sail as a crest.

On Oct. 30, 1775, Congress resolved to fit out two more vessels, one of twenty and the other of thirty-six guns; and about the middle of December issued an order for the construction of thirteen additional armed vessels—five of thirty-two guns, five of twenty-eight, and three of thirteen—to be ready for sea by March 1, following. The committee to whom the construction was referred reported that the average cost of the ships would be about $60,000 each, and that materials for the same and for their equipment might all be obtained in the colonies, excepting cannon and gunpowder. The marine committee was increased in number, so as to consist of one member from each colony. This committee had very little executive power, but had general control of all naval operations under the direction of Congress. In November, 1776, Congress fixed the relative rank of officers in the army and navy as follows: an admiral was equal in rank to a general, a vice-admiral to a lieutenant-general, a commodore to a brigadier-general, the captain of a ship of forty guns and upward to a colonel, the captain of a ship of ten to twenty guns to a major, and a lieutenant in the navy was equal to a captain in the army. Esek Hopkins, of Rhode Island, was commissioned the first commodore, and made commander-in-chief of the Continental navy.

The navy was almost annihilated at the close of the Revolutionary War. Of the thirteen frigates ordered to be built by Congress in 1775, two had been destroyed on the Hudson River and three on the Delaware, without getting to sea. The remaining eight, together with most of the purchased vessels, had been captured by the British, some at Charleston, some at Penobscot, and others on the high seas. The only American ship-of-the-line ordered by Congress and finished (the *Alliance*) was presented in 1782 to the King of France, to supply the place of a similar vessel lost in Boston Harbor by an accident. After the war there seemed to be little use for a navy, and it was neglected. This indifference was continued until 1793, when depredations upon American commerce by Algerine corsairs became more alarming than ever. In his message of December, 1793, Washington said, in reference to a navy, "If we desire to avoid insult, we must be able to repel it; if we desire to secure peace, one of the most powerful instruments of our prosperity, it must be known that we are at all times ready for war." Acting upon this hint, Congress, in the spring of 1794, appropriated (March 11) about $700,000 for creating a small navy. The President was authorized to procure, by purchase or otherwise, six frigates; but it was provided that work on them should cease in the event of a peace with Algiers being secured. He commissioned captains, superintendents, naval constructors, and navy agents, six of each, and ordered the construction of six frigates. The treaty providing for the payment of tribute to Algiers was made late in 1795, when work on the vessels was suspended; but the folly of the suspension was soon made manifest when officers of the British cruisers boarded our merchant-vessels and impressed seamen into the British service under the pretext that they were deserters. The French, too, were becoming aggressive on the high seas. They depredated upon American commerce under the sanction of a decree of the Directory, which was almost tantamount to a declaration of war, issued in May, 1797. It authorized the capture of American vessels under certain conditions, and declared that any American found on board a hostile ship, though placed there without his consent (by impressment), should be hanged as a pirate. In this state of our foreign relations, Congress directed three of the six frigates ordered in 1794 to be completed, launched, and put into commission; and before the close of the year the frigates *Constitution*, forty-four guns; *Con-*

stellation, thirty-eight guns, and *United States*, forty-four guns, were ready for sea. The *Constitution*, which won many a victory, is yet afloat. In 1798 ample provision was made by sea and land for war with France, which seemed impending. A Navy Department was created, and in April, Benjamin Stoddert, of Maryland, was appointed Secretary.

In the War of 1812–15.—When the President of the United States proclaimed war against Great Britain, July 19, 1812, the navy consisted of only twenty vessels, exclusive of gunboats. They were as follows:

Name.	Rated.	Mounted	Commanders.
Constitution ..	44	58	Capt. Hull.
United States..	44	58	Capt. Decatur.
President.	44	58	Com. Rodgers.
Chesapeake ...	36	44	Capt. Smith.
New York	36	44	Ordinary.
Constellation ..	36	44	Ordinary.
Congress	36	44	Ordinary.
Boston	32		Ordinary.
Essex	32		Capt. Porter.
Adams	32		Ordinary.
John Adams ..	26		Capt. Ludlow.
Wasp	16	18	Capt. Jones.
Hornet	16	18	Capt. Lawrence.
Siren	16		Lieut. Carroll.
Argus	16		Lieut. Crane.
Oneida	16		Lieut. Woolsey.
Vixen	12		Lieut. Gadsden.
Nautilus	12		Lieut. Sinclair.
Enterprise	12		Capt. Blakeley.
Viper	12		Capt. Bainbridge.

The government early perceived the importance of having control of Lakes Ontario and Erie when the war began. Events in the early part of 1812 at the eastern end of Lake Ontario (see SACKETT'S HARBOR), and the fact that the British were building war vessels at Kingston, made it important that an American squadron should appear on those waters very speedily. The only hope of creating a squadron in time to secure the supremacy of the lake to the Americans was in their ability to convert merchant vessels afloat into warriors. Several of these were already afloat on the lake. To destroy them was a prime object of the British; to save them was a prime object of the Americans. Dearborn's armistice allowed the escape of some of them confined on the St. Lawrence, and at the close of August, 1812, Isaac Chauncey, one of the best practical seamen in the navy, was commissioned commander-in-chief of the navy on Lakes Ontario and Erie. Henry Eckford, a naturalized Scotchman, and an eminent ship-builder, with a competent number of men, hastened to Sackett's Harbor to prepare a squadron. With great facility one was prepared, and on Nov. 8 Chauncey appeared on Lake Ontario with a little squadron consisting of the armed schooners *Conquest*, *Growler*, *Pert*, *Scourge*, *Governor Tompkins*, and *Hamilton*. These were originally the merchant schooners *Genesee Packet*, *Experiment*, *Collector*, *Lord Nelson*, *Charles and Anne*, and *Diana*. Their armament consisted chiefly of long guns mounted on circles, with a few lighter ones that could be of very little service. Already two schooners, the *Oneida* and *Julia*, were in the service. The keel of the frigate *Madison*, twenty-four guns, was laid before Chauncey's arrival, and when finished she mounted forty guns. There was an average of only five guns to each vessel of the remainder of the Lake Ontario squadron.

In January, 1813, an act was passed authorizing the building of four 74-gun ships and six first-class frigates. A subsequent act (March 3) authorized the construction of six sloops-of-war, and as many ships on the lakes as the President might direct. Another act promised any person who, by torpedoes or other like contrivances, should burn, sink, or destroy any British armed vessels, half their value in money. So much enthusiasm had been created by the naval victories in 1812 that in several of the States acts were passed to build ships-of-war and present them to the government. The latter projects, however, failed. James Fenimore Cooper, in his *History of the Navy of the United States*, says: "The navy came out of the struggle with a vast increase of reputation. The brilliant style in which the ships had been carried into action, the steadfastness and rapidity with which they had been handled, and the fatal accuracy of their fire on nearly every occasion, produced a new era in naval warfare. Most of the frigate actions had been as soon decided as circumstances would at all allow, and in no instance was it found necessary to keep up the fire of a sloop-of-war an hour when singly engaged. Most

of the combats of the latter, indeed, were decided in about half that time. The execution done in these short conflicts was often equal to that made by the largest vessels of Europe in general actions, and in some of them the slain and wounded composed a very large proportion of the crews. It is not easy to say in which

UNITED STATES FRIGATE OF 1812.

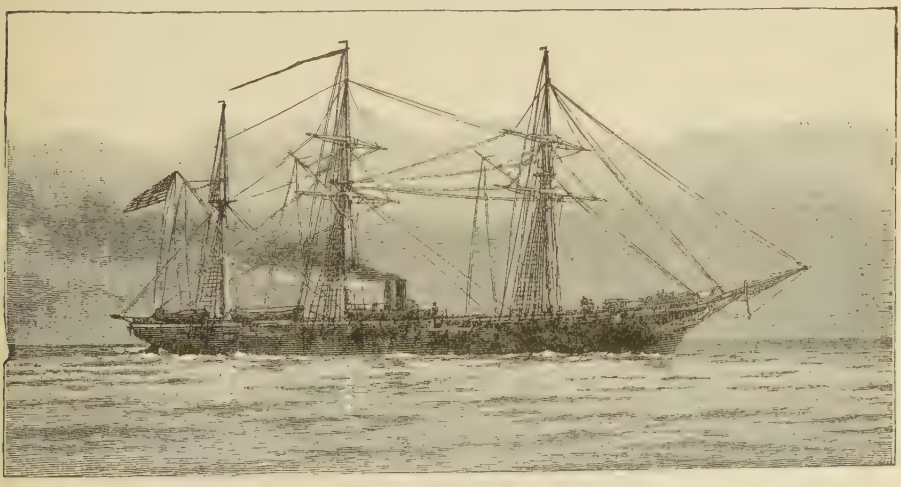
nation this unlooked-for result created the most surprise. . . . The ablest and bravest captains of the English fleet were ready to admit that a new power was about to appear on the ocean, and that it was not improbable the battle for the mastery of the seas would have to be fought over again."

In the Civil War.—At the beginning of President Lincoln's administration, the navy had been placed far beyond the reach of the government for immediate use. The total number of vessels of all classes belonging to the navy was ninety, carrying, or designed to carry, 2,415 guns. Of this number only forty-two were in commission. Twenty-eight ships, having in the aggregate 874 guns, were lying in ports dismantled, and none of them could be made ready for sea in less than several weeks' time; some of them would require at least six months. The most of them in commission had been sent to distant seas, and the entire available force for the defence of the whole Atlantic coast of the republic was the ship *Brooklyn*, of twenty-five guns, and the store-ship *Relief*, of two guns. The *Brooklyn* drew too much water to enter Charleston Harbor with safety when the war had been commenced, and the *Relief* had been ordered to Africa with stores for a squadron there. Many of the officers of the navy were born in the South, and sixty of them, including eleven at the Naval Academy, had resigned their commissions. Such was the utterly powerless condition of the navy to assist in preserving the life of the republic when Isaac Toucey, of Connecticut, resigned the office of Secretary of the Navy to Gideon Welles, of the same State, on March 4, 1861.

The Secretary and assistant Secretary Fox put forth all their energies in the creation of a navy to meet the exigencies of the times. At the beginning of July, four months after President Lincoln's administration came into power, there were forty-three armed vessels engaged in the blockade of the Southern ports, and in defence of the coast on the eastern side of the continent. These were divided into two squadrons, known respectively as the Atlantic and Gulf squadrons. The for-

mer, under the command of FLAG-OFFICER SILAS H. STRINGHAM (*q. v.*), consisted of twenty-two vessels and an aggregate of 296 guns and 3,300 men; the latter, commanded by Flag-Officer William Mervine, consisted of twenty-one vessels, with an aggregate of 282 guns and 3,500 men. Before the close of 1861, the Secretary purchased and put into commission no less than 137 vessels, and had contracted for the building of a large number of steamships of a substantial class, suitable for performing continuous duty off the coasts in all weathers. The Secretary recommended the appointment of a competent board to inquire into and report on the subject of iron-clad vessels. Calls for recruits for the navy were promptly complied with, and for the want of them no vessel was ever detained more than two or three days. Since March 1, 259 officers had resigned or been dismissed, but their places were soon all filled; for many who had retired to civil pursuits again came forward and offered their services to their country and were recommissioned.

The services of the navy during the Civil War were not appreciated by the people as fully as they deserved. They were often subservient to the army in its operations near rivers. On the ocean the services of the navy were chiefly required in blockading ports, or in bombarding coast defences. The Confederates had no navy proper, only flotillas of gunboats and rams on rivers and in harbors, and not a ship on the ocean excepting a few roving piratical vessels depredating upon American commerce. Therefore there were few occasions for purely naval battles. But in the sphere in which the navy was called upon to act, it performed services of incalculable value, and deserves equal honor and gratitude with the army. The service during the war was more exhausting and really wonderful in operations and results than that of any other navy in the world. The Navy Department displayed great energy. The navy was reduced to the smallest proportions during fifty years of peace, and kept in existence only for the protection of the continually expanding commerce of the republic. When the Civil War began, its men numbered only 7,600, and of its officers, 322, natives of Southern States, resigned their commissions to serve the Confederacy. Yet, before an adequate naval force could be organized and vessels prepared, the blockade of several Southern ports was ordered and was maintained. Merchant vessels were converted into war-ships, and volunteers from that service filled the vacant offices. Of these, about 7,600 were received and commissioned, and the rank and file in the service, aggregating about 7,600 men when the war opened, numbered 51,500 when it closed. At the be-



UNITED STATES SLOOP-OF-WAR KEARSARGE, TYPE OF VESSEL IN USE DURING CIVIL WAR.

ginning, there were 3,844 artisans and laborers; at the end, there were 16,880, exclusive of about an equal number employed in private ship-yards under contract. During the four years, 208 war-vessels were constructed and fitted out, and 418 vessels were purchased and converted into war-ships. Of these 613 were steamers, the whole costing nearly $19,000,000.

SHIPS OF THE NAVY IN 1901.

(ABBREVIATIONS. — *Hull:* S., steel; S.W., steel, wood, sheathed; I., iron; W., wood; Comp., compound. *Propulsion:* S., screw; T. S., twin screw; Tr.S., triple screw; P., paddle.)

FIRST RATE.

Name.	Displacement (Tons).	Type.	Hull.	Indicated Horse-Power.	Propulsion.	Guns (Main Battery).
Alabama	11,565	First-class battle-ship	S.	11,366	T.S.	18
Kearsarge	11,525	First-class battle-ship	S.	11,954	T.S.	22
Kentucky	11,525	First-class battle-ship	S.	12,318	T.S.	22
Iowa	11,340	First-class battle-ship	S.	12,105	T.S.	18
Indiana	10,288	First-class battle-ship	S.	9,738	T.S.	16
Massachusetts	10,288	First-class battle-ship	S.	10,403	T.S.	16
Oregon	10,288	First-class battle-ship	S.	11,111	T.S.	16
Brooklyn	9,215	Armored cruiser	S.	18,769	T.S.	20
New York	8,200	Armored cruiser	S.	17,401	T.S.	18
Columbia	7,375	Protected cruiser	S.	18,509	Tr.S.	11
Minneapolis	7,375	Protected cruiser	S.	20,862	Tr.S.	11
Texas	6,315	Second class battle-ship	S.	8,610	T.S.	8
Puritan	6,060	Double-turret	S.	3,700	T.S.	10
Olympia	5,870	Protected cruiser	S.	17,313	T.S.	14
Chicago	5,000	Protected cruiser	S.	9,000	T.S.	18
SECOND RATE.						
Buffalo	6,888	Cruiser (converted)	S.	3,600	S.	6
Dixie	6,145	Cruiser (converted)	S.	3,800	S.	10
Baltimore	4,413	Protected cruiser	S.	10,064	T.S.	10
Philadelphia	4,324	Protected cruiser	S.	1,815	T.S.	12
Newark	4,098	Protected cruiser	S.	8,869	T.S.	12
San Francisco	4,098	Protected cruiser	S.	9,913	T.S.	12
Monterey	4,084	Barbette cruiser, low free-board monitor	S.	5,244	T.S.	4
Miantonomoh	3,990	Double-turret monitor	I.	1,426	T.S.	4
Amphitrite	3,990	Double-turret monitor	I.	1,600	T.S.	6
Monadnock	3,990	Double-turret monitor	I.	3,000	T.S.	6
Terror	3,990	Double-turret monitor	I.	1,600	T.S.	4
Albany	3,437	Protected cruiser	S.W.	7,500	T.S.	10
New Orleans	3,437	Protected cruiser	S.W.	7,500	T.S.	10
Lancaster	3,250	Cruiser	W.	1,000	S.	12
Cincinnati	3,213	Protected cruiser	S.	10,000	T.S.	11
Raleigh	3,213	Protected cruiser	S.	10,000	T.S.	11
Reina Mercedes	3,090	Protected cruiser	S.	3,700	S.	..
Atlanta	3,000	Protected cruiser	S.	4,030	S.	8
Boston	3,000	Protected cruiser	S.	4,030	S.	8
THIRD RATE.						
Yankee	6,888	Cruiser (converted)	I.	3,800	S.	10
Prairie	6,872	Cruiser (converted)	I.	3,800	S.	10
Solace	4,700	Hospital ship	S.	3,200	S.	..
Panther	4,260	Cruiser (converted)	I.	.....	S.	8
Hartford	2,790	Cruiser	W.	2,000	S.	13
Mayflower	2,690	Cruiser (converted)	S.	4,700	T.S.	2
Katahdin	2,155	Harbor-defence ram	S.	5,068	T.S.	4
Canonicus	2,100	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Mahopac	2,100	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Manhattan	2,100	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Detroit	2,089	Unprotected cruiser	S.	5,227	T.S.	10
Montgomery	2,089	Unprotected cruiser	S.	5,580	T.S.	10
Marblehead	2,089	Unprotected cruiser	S.	5,451	T.S.	10
Mohican	1,900	Cruiser	W.	1,100	S.	6
Catskill	1,875	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Jason	1,875	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Lehigh	1,875	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Montauk	1,875	Single-turret monitor	I.	340	S.	2
Nahant	1,875	Single-turret monitor	S.	340	S.	2
Manila	1,800	Gunboat	I.	750	S.	2
Bennington	1,710	Gunboat	I.	3,436	T.S.	6
Concord	1,710	Gunboat	S.	3,405	T.S.	6
Yorktown	1,710	Gunboat	S.	3,392	T.S.	6

SHIPS OF THE NAVY IN 1901.—*Continued.*

THIRD RATE

Name.	Displacement (Tons).	Type.	Hull.	Indicated Horse-Power.	Propulsion.	Guns (Main Battery).
Topeka	1,700	Gunboat	I.	2,000	S.	8
Dolphin	1,486	Despatch-boat	S.	2,253	S.	3
Wilmington	1,392	Light-draft gunboat	S.	1,894	T.S.	8
Helena	1,392	Light-draft gunboat	S.	1,988	T.S.	8
Adams	1,375	Cruiser	W.	800	S.	6
Alliance	1,375	Cruiser	W.	800	S.	6
Essex	1,375	Cruiser	W.	800	S.	6
Enterprise	1,375	Cruiser	W.	800	S.	1
Nashville	1,371	Light-draft gunboat	S.	2,536	T.S.	8
Monocacy	1,370	Light-draft gunboat	I.	850	P.	6
Castine	1,177	Gunboat	S.	2,199	T.S.	8
Machias	1,177	Gunboat	S.	2,046	T.S.	8
Chesapeake	1,175	Gunboat	Comp.	.....	Sails	6
Don Juan de Austria	1,159	Gunboat	I.	1,500	S.	4
Isla de Luzon	1,030	Gunboat	S.	2,627	T.S.	6
Isla de Cuba	1,030	Gunboat	S.	2,627	T.S.	6
Alert	1,020	Cruiser	I.	500	S.	3
Ranger	1,020	Cruiser	I.	500	S.	6
Annapolis	1,000	Composite gunboat	Comp.	1,227	S.	6
Vicksburg	1,000	Composite gunboat	Comp.	1,118	S.	6
Wheeling	1,000	Composite gunboat	Comp.	1,081	T.S.	6
Marietta	1,000	Composite gunboat	Comp.	1,054	T.S.	6
Newport	1,000	Composite gunboat	Comp.	1,008	S.	6
Princeton	1,000	Composite gunboat	Comp.	800	S.	6

FOURTH RATE.

a, Estimated. *b*, Secondary battery. *c*, Main battery.

Ajax	*a*7,500	Collier	S.	3,000	S.	*b*2
Glacier	*a*7,000	Refrigerator-ship	S.	.....	S.	*b*3
Celtic	6,428	Supply-ship	S.	1,890	S.	..
Culgoa	*a*6,300	Supply-ship	S.	*a*1,500	..	..
Saturn	*a*6,220	Collier	I.	1,500	S.	*b*2
Rainbow	6,206	Distilling-ship	S.	1,800	S.	..
Arethusa	*a*6,200	Tank steamer	S.	.....	S.	..
Alexander	6,181	Collier	S.	1,026	S.	*b*2
Iris	6,100	Distilling-ship	S.	1,300	S.	..
Brutus	*a*6,000	Collier	S.	1,200	S.	*b*2
Sterling	5,663	Collier	I.	*a*926	S.	*b*2
Cæsar	5,016	Collier	S.	1,500	S.	*b*4
Nero	4,925	Collier	S.	1,000	S.	*b*4
Nanshan	*a*4,827	Collier	S.	.....	..	..
Abarenda	4,670	Collier	S.	1,050	S.	*b*4
Supply	4,460	Supply-ship	I.	1,069	S.	*b*2
Marcellus	*a*4,400	Collier	I.	1,200	S.	*b*2
Hannibal	4,291	Collier	S.	1,100	S.	*b*2
Leonidas	4,242	Collier	S.	1,100	S.	*b*2
Lebanon	3,375	Collier	I.	.....	S.	*b*4
Justin	3,300	Collier	S.	.....	S.	*b*2
Southery	*a*3,100	Collier	I.	.....	S.	*b*2
Pompey	*a*3,085	Collier	S.	.....	S.	*b*2
Zafiro	*a*2,000	Supply-ship	S.	.....	..	..
General Alava	1,400	Transport	S.	770	S.	*b*4
Yankton	975	Gunboat (converted)	S.	750	S.	*b*8
Vesuvius	929	Dynamite-gun vessel	S.	3,795	T.S.	*b*3
Petrel	892	Gunboat	S.	1,095	S.	*c*4
Scorpion	850	Gunboat (converted)	S.	2,800	T.S.	*b*8
Fern	840	Tender	W.	300	S.	*b*3
Bancroft	839	Gunboat	S.	1,213	T.S.	*c*4
Vixen	806	Gunboat (converted)	S.	1,250	S.	*b*4
Gloucester	786	Gunboat (converted)	S.	2,000	S.	*b*10
Michigan	685	Cruiser	I.	365	P.	*b*6
Wasp	630	Gunboat (converted)	S.	1,800	S.	*b*6
Frolic	607	Gunboat (converted)	S.	550	S.	*b*4
Dorothea	594	Gunboat (converted)	S.	1,558	S.	*b*10
El Cano	560	Gunboat	S.	660	T.S.	..
Pinta	550	Gunboat	I.	310	S.	*b*2
Stranger	*a*546	Gunboat (converted)	I.	.....	S.	*b*5
Peoria	488	Gunboat (converted)	S.	.....	S.	*b*7
Hist	472	Gunboat (converted)	S.	500	S.	*b*6
Eagle	434	Gunboat (converted)	S.	850	S.	*b*6
Hornet	425	Gunboat (converted)	S.	800	S.	*b*9
Quiros	400	Gunboat	Comp.	208	S.	*b*2
Villaobos	400	Gunboat	Comp.	208	S.	*b*2

SHIPS OF THE NAVY IN 1901.—*Continued.*

FOURTH RATE.

Name.	Displacement (Tons).	Type.	Hull.	Indicated Horse-Power.	Propulsion.	Guns (Main Battery).
Hawk	375	Gunboat (converted)	S.	1,000	S.	*b*4
Siren	*a*315	Gunboat (converted)	S.	.....	S.	*b*4
Sylvia	*a*302	Gunboat (converted)	I.	.....	S.	*b*6
Callao	200	Gunboat	S.	250	T.S.	*b*6
Pampanga	200	Gunboat	I.	250	T.S.	*b*4
Paragua	200	Gunboat	I.	250	T.S.	*b*4
Samar	200	Gunboat	I.	250	T.S.	*b*4
Arayat	200	Gunboat	I.	260	S.	*b*4
Belusan	200	Gunboat	I.	220	S.	..
Aileen	192	Gunboat (converted)	S.	500	S.	*b*5
Elfrida	*a*173	Gunboat (converted)	S.	200	S.	*b*2
Sylph	152	Gunboat (converted)	S.	550	S.	*b*8
Calamianes	150	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*3
Albay	150	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*3
Leyte	150	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*3
Oneida	150	Gunboat (converted)	W.	350	S.	*b*6
Panay	142	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*4
Manileno	142	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*4
Mariveles	142	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*4
Mindoro	142	Gunboat	I.	125	T.S.	*b*4
Restless	137	Gunboat (converted)	I.	500	S.	*b*8
Shearwater	122	Gunboat (converted)	S.	....	S.	*b*3
Inca	*a*120	Gunboat (converted)	W.	400	S.	*b*2
Alvarado	100	Gunboat	S.	137	S.	*b*2
Sandoval	100	Gunboat	S.	137	S.	*b*2
Huntress	82	Gunboat (converted)	Comp.	....	S.	*b*2
Basco	42	Gunboat	I.	44	S.	*b*2
Guardoqui	42	Gunboat	I.	44	S.	*b*2
Urdaneta	42	Gunboat	I.	44	S.	*b*2

a, Estimated. *b*, Secondary battery.

TORPEDO VESSELS.

Cushing (No. 1)	105	Torpedo-boat	S.	1,720	T.S.	*d*3
Ericsson (No. 2)	120	Torpedo-boat	S.	1,800	T.S.	*d*3
Foote (No. 3)	142	Torpedo-boat	S.	2,000	T.S.	*d*3
Rodgers (No. 4)	142	Torpedo-boat	S.	2,000	T.S.	*d*3
Winslow (No. 5)	142	Torpedo-boat	S.	2,000	T.S.	*d*3
Porter (No. 6)	165	Torpedo-boat	S.	3,400	T.S.	*d*3
Dupont (No. 7)	165	Torpedo-boat	S.	3,400	T.S.	*d*3
Rowan (No. 8)	182	Torpedo-boat	S.	3,200	T.S.	*d*3
Dahlgren (No. 9)	146	Torpedo-boat	S.	4,200	T.S.	*d*2
T. A. M. Craven (No 10)	146	Torpedo-boat	S.	4,200	T.S.	*d*2
Farragut (No. 11)	273	Torpedo-boat	S.	5,600	T.S.	*d*2
Davis (No. 12)	132	Torpedo-boat	S.	1,750	T.S.	*d*3
Fox (No. 13)	132	Torpedo-boat	S.	1,750	T.S.	*d*3
Morris (No. 14)	105	Torpedo-boat	S.	1,750	T.S.	*d*3
Talbot (No. 15)	46½	Torpedo-boat	S.	850	T.S.	*d*2
Gwin (No. 16)	46	Torpedo-boat	S.	850	S.	*d*2
Mackenzie (No. 17)	65	Torpedo-boat	S.	850	S.	*d*2
McKee (No. 18)	65	Torpedo-boat	S.	850	S.	*d*2
Somers (No. 22)	145	Torpedo-boat	S.	1,900	S.	*d*2
Manly (No. 23)	30	Torpedo-boat	S.	250	S.	*d*1
Stiletto (No. 53)	31	Torpedo-boat	W.	359	S.	*d*2
Holland (No. 54)	73	Submarine torpedo-boat	S.	150	S.	*d*1

d, Torpedo tubes.

UNDER CONSTRUCTION IN 1904.

Connecticut	16,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	16,500	T.S.	24
Kansas	16,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	16,500	T.S.	24
Louisiana	16,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	16,500	T.S.	24
Minnesota	16,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	16,500	T.S.	24
Vermont	16,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	16,500	T.S.	24
Georgia	15,000	First-class battle-ship	S.W.	18,000	T.S.	24
Nebraska	15,000	First-class battle-ship	S.W.	18,000	T.S.	24
New Jersey	15,000	First-class battle-ship	S.W.	18,000	T.S.	24
Rhode Island	14,600	First-class battle-ship	S.	18,000	T.S.	24
Virginia	14,600	First-class battle-ship	S.	18,000	T.S.	24
Idaho	13,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	10,000	T.S.	22
Mississippi	13,000	First-class battle-ship	S.	10,000	T.S.	22
Ohio	12,500	First-class battle-ship	S.	16,000	T.S.	20
Tennessee	14,500	Armored cruiser	S.	25,000	T.S.	20

UNDER CONSTRUCTION IN 1904—*Continued.*

Name.	Displacement (Tons).	Type.	Hull.	Indicated Horse-Power.	Propulsion.	Guns (Main Battery).
Washington	14,500	Armored cruiser	S.	25,000	T.S.	20
California	14,000	Armored cruiser	S.W.	23,000	T.S.	22
Pennsylvania	14,000	Armored cruiser	S.W.	23,000	T.S.	22
West Virginia	14,000	Armored cruiser	S.W.	23,000	T.S.	22
Colorado	13,600	Armored cruiser	S.	23,000	T.S.	22
Maryland	13,600	Armored cruiser	S.	23,000	T.S.	22
South Dakota	13,600	Armored cruiser	S.	23,000	T.S.	22
Charleston	9,600	Protected cruiser	S.	21,000	T.S.	14
Milwaukee	9,600	Protected cruiser	S.	21,000	T.S.	14
St. Louis	9,600	Protected cruiser	S.	21,000	T.S.	14
Chattanooga	3,100	Protected cruiser	S.W.	4,700	T.S.	10
Denver	3,100	Protected cruiser	S.W.	4,700	T.S.	10
Des Moines	3,100	Protected cruiser	S.W.	4,700	T.S.	10
Galveston	3,100	Protected cruiser	S.W.	4,700	T.S.	10
Tacoma	3,100	Protected cruiser	S.W.	4,700	T.S.	10
Dubuque	1,085	Gunboat	S.W.	1,050	T.S.	6
Paducah	1,085	Gunboat	S.W.	1,050	T.S.	6
Gunboat (No. 16)	....	Gunboat	S.	....	T.S.	..
Cumberland	1,800	Training-ship	S.	....	....	6
Intrepid	1,800	Training-ship	S.	....	....	6
Boxer	345	Training-brigantine	W.	....	....	..
Stringham (No. 19)	340	Torpedo-boat	S.	7,200	T.S.	*a*2
Goldsborough (No. 20)	247½	Torpedo-boat	S.	6,000	T.S.	*a*2
Nicholson (No. 30)	174	Torpedo-boat	S.	3,500	T.S.	*a*3
O'Brier (No. 31)	174	Torpedo-boat	S.	3,500	T.S.	*a*3
Blakely (No. 28)	165	Torpedo-boat	S.	3,000	T.S.	*a*3
Sotoyomo (No. 9)	225	Torpedo-boat	S.	450	S.	..

a, Torpedo tubes.

ASSIGNMENT OF VESSELS, DEC. 1, 1904.

North Atlantic Fleet. Rear-Admiral A. S. Barker.
Coast Squadron. Rear-Admiral J. H. Sands.
Caribbean Squadron. Rear-Admiral C. D. Sigsbee.

Asiatic Fleet. Rear-Admiral Y. Stirling.
Cruiser Squadron. Rear-Admiral W. M. Folger.
Philippine Squadron. Rear-Admiral C. J. Train.
Pacific Squadron. Rear-Admiral C. F. Goodrich.

European Squadron. Captain H. G. O. Colby.
South Atlantic Squadron. Captain J. M. Hawley.
Atlantic Training Squadron. Captain R. B. Bradford.

Under the naval personnel bill of 1899 the active officers of the navy in 1904 comprised 1 admiral; 27 rear-admirals, the first nine of whom were equal in relative rank to major-generals in the army and the second nine to brigadier-generals; 80 captains; 120 commanders; 192 lieutenant-commanders; 331 lieutenants; 24 lieutenants (junior grade); and 166 ensigns. The medical corps comprised 16 medical directors; 15 medical inspectors; 86 surgeons; 35 passed assistant surgeons; and 68 assistant surgeons. The pay corps comprised 14 pay directors; 15 pay inspectors; 76 paymasters; 30 passed assistant paymasters; and 18 assistant paymasters. There were 23 chaplains and 12 professors of mathematics. In the construction corps there were 20 naval constructors and 30 assistant naval constructors. The civil engineers numbered 28; chief gunners, 12, and gunners, 100; chief carpenters, 14, and carpenters, 73. The minor officers consisted of boatswains, sail-makers, machinists, and pharmacists. The personnel act of 1899 abolished the grade of commodore, and officers of that grade were advanced to that of rear-admiral. The retired list consisted of 67 rear-admirals; 5 commodores; 5 captains; 24 commanders; 28 medical directors; 29 chief engineers; 6 naval constructors, besides minor officers.

The bureaus of the department comprised the following: bureau of yards and docks, bureau of equipment, bureau of navigation, bureau of ordnance, bureau of construction and repair, bureau of

steam-engineering, bureau of supplies and accounts, bureau of medicine and surgery, and the office of the judge advocate-general. Under the law the chiefs of these bureaus, below the grade of rear-admiral, hold that grade while chiefs of the bureaus.

The regular stations of the navy were the North Atlantic, flag-ship *Kearsarge;* Pacific, flag-ship *New York;* Asiatic, flag-ship *Kentucky;* South Atlantic, flag-ship *Newark;* and European, flag-ship *Brooklyn.* There were 19 vessels on special service and 9 in the training service.

Naval stations were maintained at Boston, Mass. (navy-yard); Island of Guam, Ladrones; Guantanamo, Cuba; Honolulu, Hawaii; Key West, Fla.; Indian Head, Md.; Mare Island, Cal. (navy-yard); Newport, R. I. (training station, naval war college, and torpedo station); New York, N. Y. (navy-yard); Norfolk, Va. (navy-yard); Pensacola, Fla. (navy-yard); Philadelphia, Pa. (navy-yard); Cavité, Philippine Islands; Port Royal, S. C.; Portsmouth, N. H. (navy-yard); Puget Sound, Wash. (navy-yard); San Francisco, Cal. (training station); San Juan, Porto Rico; Tutuila, Samoa; Washington, D. C. (navy-yard); and Yokohama, Japan (naval hospital). Naval officers were also employed on the light-house board, the board of light-house inspectors, the commission of fish and fisheries, the nautical school-ships, and as attachés of embassies and legations in foreign countries.

The following shows the pay of officers of the navy and marine corps:

Rank.	At Sea.*	On Shore Duty.	On Leave or Waiting Orders.
Admiral	$13,500	$13,500	....
Rear-Admirals, first nine	7,500	6,375	....
Rear-Admirals, second nine	5,500	4,675	....
Captains	3,500	2,975	....
Commanders	3,000	2,550	....
Lieutenant-Commanders	2,500	2,125	....
Lieutenants	1,800	1,530	....
Lieutenants (Junior Grade)	1,500	1,275	....
Ensigns	1,400	1,190	....
Chief Boatswain, Chief Gunners, Chief Carpenters, Chief Sailmakers	1,400	1,400	....
Naval Cadets	500	500	$500
Mates	900	700	500
Medical and Pay Directors and Inspectors and Chief Engineers having the same rank at sea	4,400	....	....

* Or shore duty beyond sea.

PAY OF OFFICERS OF THE NAVY AND MARINE CORPS—*Continued.*

Rank.	At Sea.*	On Shore Duty.	On Leave or Waiting Orders.
Fleet-Surgeons, Fleet-Paymasters, and Fleet-Engineers	4,400	....	....
Surgeons, Paymasters, and Chief Engineers	2,800 to 4,200	$2,000 to 3,000	$2,400 to 4,000
Chaplains	2,500 to 2,800	1,600 to 1,900	2,000 to 2,300

* Or shore duty beyond sea.

Warrant officers are paid from $700 to $1,800, petty officers from $360 to $400, and enlisted men from $192 to $420 per annum.

The term of enlistment for seamen is for four years. Wages for landsmen, $16 per month; ordinary seamen, $19; seamen, $24; stewards, mechanics, etc., $16 to $60; coal passers, $22. Ages limited to from 21 to 35 years, except landsmen, 18 to 25, and ordinary seamen, 18 to 30.

Boys between the ages of 15 and 17, of good physique, may, with the consent of their parents or guardians, be enlisted to serve an apprenticeship in the navy until they arrive at the age of 21 years. Their pay at enlistment is $9 per month, which, with length of service, is increased to $21.

Naval Training System.—The necessity for the establishment of a higher moral tone and greater professional efficiency among the seamen of the navy had been felt and expressed long before any steps were taken to produce the needed reform. So, also, in England. Immediately after the close of the war between the United States and Great Britain (1812–15), Sir Howard Douglas, perceiving the necessity for educated seamen in the royal navy, called the attention of his government to the matter. Nothing was done, however, officially, until June, 1830, when an admiralty order directed that a "gunnery-school" should be formed in one of the British ships-of-war. It was done, and this was the initial step towards the present admirable training of boys for service in the British navy. Its great object has been to make the sailors expert "seamen-gunners," as well as in the use of small-arms and the broad-sword. The British government now has several ships devoted exclusively to the training of boys, with the happiest effect upon the general character of the royal navy.

In 1835 John Goin, of New York, called public attention to the necessity of education for seamen, not only in the navy

proper, but in the service of the mercantile marine. It was deemed essential that more Americans should be found among our seamen; for official statistics showed that of the 100,000 seamen then sailing out of the ports of the United States, only about 9,000 were Americans. This positive evil could only be met and remedied, it was argued, by the establishment of nautical schools, in which American boys could be trained for seamen. A petition for such a measure went from New York to Congress in 1837. That body, the same year, authorized the enlistment of boys for the navy, and it was not long afterwards when the frigate *Hudson* had 300 boys on board as apprentices. Several nautical schools were opened on other vessels, but within five years the plan seems to have been abandoned. In 1863 the United States practice-vessel at the Naval Academy went on a summer cruise across the Atlantic, and visited the ports of Plymouth and Portsmouth, England. Her officers there visited the British training-ships. Impressed with the importance of the system, the commander of the practice-ship, CAPT. S. B. LUCE (*q. v.*), on his return, called the attention of the Navy Department to the subject, and recommended a similar system of training for the United States navy.

The law of 1837 was revived, and the United States frigate *Sabine* was selected as a school-ship, and in due time the sloops-of-war *Saratoga* and *Portsmouth* were added as practice-vessels. This second effort was a failure. The project was revived in 1875, in a circular issued by the Secretary of the Navy. In pursuance of instructions in that circular, the United States steam-frigate *Minnesota* was commissioned a school-ship under the command of (afterwards) Rear-Admiral S. B. Luce. The system has been modified and improved since. Many hundred American boys have been instructed, and the work is still going on. The boys are under excellent moral restraint, are systematically taught the branches of a common-school education, and are trained in every department of seamanship, as well as in gunnery and military tactics. Such a system creates enlightened American seamen, who will elevate the character of the seaman's profession—in the navy proper and in the mercantile marine—to the level of any other industry

THE SCHOOL-SHIP SABINE.

in which the brain and muscle of Americans may engage.

In 1901, besides the training stations previously mentioned, the following vessels were on duty in the training service: *Adams, Amphitrite, Buffalo, Dixie, Essex, Hartford, Lancaster, Monongahela,* and *Topeka.* The nautical school-ships were the *St. Mary's* (New York), *Saratoga* (Pennsylvania), and *Enterprise* (Massachusetts). See MARINE CORPS; NAVAL MILITIA.

Navy Department. See CABINET, PRESIDENT'S.

Naylor, CHARLES, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 6, 1806; admitted to the bar in 1828; was a member of Congress 1837–41; took part in the war with Mexico as captain of a company of volunteers, and was in most of the engagements under General Scott. He was appointed governor of the National Palace (the "Hall of the Montezumas"), and keeper of the archives of Mexico, which office he held until the evacuation of the American army, June 12, 1848.

Nead, BENJAMIN MATTHIAS, author; born in Antrim, Pa., July 14, 1847; graduated at Yale College in 1870; admitted to the bar in 1872, and was engaged in journalism. Among his works are *Historical Sketches of Chambersburg, Pa., and Franklin County, Pa.; Historical Notes on the Early Legislatures of Pennsylvania; Financial History of Pennsylvania,* etc.

Neal, JOHN, born in Portland, Me., Aug. 25, 1793; admitted to the bar of Maryland in 1819; went to England in 1823, where he was practically the first American author who attracted attention in English literature; returned to the United States in 1827, when he resumed the practice of law. He was the author of many novels which appeared at intervals from 1817 to 1870. He died in Portland, Me., June 21, 1876.

Nealy Extradition Case. C. F. W. Nealy was accused of frauds in the post-office at Havana, Cuba. He had returned to the United States, and the status of the island of Cuba in its relation to the United States was determined upon a demand for Nealy's extradition. In January, 1901, the court ordered him to be extradited.

Nebraska, STATE OF, was made a Territory May 30, 1854, embracing 351,558 square miles. A portion was set off to Colorado in February, 1861, and another portion to Dakota in March. In March, 1863, Nebraska was further shorn by taking off the Territory of Idaho. In 1860 the people voted against the proposition to form a State government. In

STATE SEAL OF NEBRASKA.

April, 1864, Congress authorized the people to organize a State government, but the continuance of war and the prevalence of Indian hostilities prevented action in the matter until early in the year 1866, when the territorial legislature framed a constitution, which was ratified in June.

A bill to admit Nebraska as a State passed Congress soon afterwards, but President Johnson withheld his signature. A similar bill was passed in January, 1867, but was vetoed by the President. It was passed over his veto by a vote of 30 to 9 in the Senate and of 120 to 44 in the House, and Nebraska was admitted as the thirty-seventh State of the Union, March 1, 1867. Lincoln was chosen as the seat of government soon afterwards. Population in 1890, 1,058,910; in 1900, 1,069,539. See UNITED STATES, NEBRASKA, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

Francis Burt	appointed		1854
Thomas B. Cuming	acting	Oct. 13,	"
Mark W. Izard	appointed		"
William A. Richardson	"		1857
J. Sterling Morton	acting		1858
Samuel Black	appointed		1859
Alvin Saunders	"		1861

STATE GOVERNORS.

David Butler	term began		1867
William H. James	acting	June 2,	1871
Robert W. Furnass	term began	Jan. 9,	1873
Silas Garber	"	"	1875
Albinus Nance	"	"	1879
James W. Dawes	"	"	1883
John M. Thayer	"	"	1887
Lorenzo Crounse	"	"	1893
Silas A. Holcomb	"	"	1895
William A. Poynter	"	"	1899
Charles H. Dietrich	"	"	1901
Ezra P. Savage	"	"	1901
John H. Mickey	"	Jan. 3,	1903
Geo. L. Sheldon	"	Jan. 2,	1907

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
John M. Thayer	40th to 42d	1867 to 1871
Thomas W. Tipton	40th " 44th	1867 " 1875
Phineas W. Hitchcock	42d " 45th	1871 " 1877
Algernon S. Paddock	44th " 47th	1875 " 1881
Alvin Saunders	45th " 48th	1877 " 1883
Charles H. Van Wyck	47th " 50th	1881 " 1888
Charles F. Manderson	48th " 54th	1883 " 1895
Algernon S. Paddock	50th " 53d	1888 " 1893
William V. Allen	53d " 56th	1893 " 1899
John M. Thurston	54th " 57th	1895 " 1901
Charles H. Dietrich	57th " 58th	1901 " 1905
J. H. Millard	57th " ——	1901 " ——
Elmer J. Burkett	59th " ——	1905 " ——

Protest Against Slavery.—On May 25, 1854, Charles Sumner delivered the following speech in the Senate in presenting a protest against the extension of slavery into Nebraska and KANSAS (*q. v.*):

I hold in my hand, and now present to the Senate, 125 separate remonstrances, from clergymen of every Protestant denomination in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, constituting the six New England States.

With pleasure and pride I now do this service, and at this last stage interpose the sanctity of the pulpits of New England to arrest an alarming outrage—believing that the remonstrants, from their eminent character and influence as representatives of the intelligence and conscience of the country, are peculiarly entitled to be heard,—and, further, believing that their remonstrances, while respectful in form, embody just conclusions, both of opinion and fact. Like them, sir, I do not hesitate to protest against the bill yet pending before the Senate, as a great moral wrong, as a breach of public faith, as a measure full of danger to the peace, and even existence of our Union. And, sir, believing in God, as I profoundly do, I cannot doubt that the opening of an immense region to so great an enormity as slavery is calculated to draw down upon our country His righteous judgments.

"In the name of Almighty God, and in His presence," these remonstrants protest against the Nebraska bill. In this solemn language, most strangely pronounced blasphemous on this floor, there is obviously no assumption of ecclesiastical power, as is perversely charged, but simply a devout observance of the Scriptural injunction, "Whatsoever ye do, in word or deed, do all in the name of the Lord." Let me add, also, that these remonstrants, in this very language, have followed the example of the Senate, which at our present session, has ratified at least one important treaty beginning with these precise words, "In the name of Almighty God." Surely, if the Senate may thus assume to speak, the clergy may do likewise, without imputation of blasphemy, or any just criticism, at least in this body.

I am unwilling, particularly at this time, to be betrayed into anything like a defence of the clergy. They need no such thing at my hands. There are men in this Senate justly eminent for eloquence, learning, and ability; but there is no man here competent, except in his own conceit, to sit in judgment on the clergy of New England. Honorable Senators, so swift with criticism and sarcasm, might profit by their example. Perhaps the Senator from South Carolina (Mr. Butler), who is not insensible to scholarship, might learn from them something of its graces. Perhaps the Senator from Virginia (Mr. Mason), who finds no sanction under the Constitution for any remonstrance from clergymen, might learn from them something of the privileges of an American citizen. And perhaps the Senator from Illinois (Mr. Douglas), who precipitated this odious measure upon the country, might learn from them something of political wisdom. Sir, from the first settlement of these shores, from those early days of struggle and privation, through the trials of the Revolution, the clergy are associated not only with the piety and the learning, but with the liberties of the country. New England for a long time was governed by their prayers more than by any acts of the legislature; and at a later day their voices aided even the Declaration of Independence. The clergy of our time speak,

then, not only from their own virtues, but from echoes yet surviving in the pulpits of their fathers.

From myself, I desire to thank them for their generous interposition. Already they have done much good in moving the country. They will not be idle. In the days of the Revolution, John Adams, yearning for independence, said, "Let the pulpits thunder against oppression!" And the pulpits thundered. The time has come for them to thunder again. So famous was John Knox for power in prayer that Queen Mary used to say she feared his prayers more than all the armies of Europe. But our clergy have prayers to be feared by the upholders of wrong.

There are lessons taught by these remonstrances which, at this moment, should not pass unheeded. The Senator from Ohio (Mr. Wade), on the other side of the chamber, has openly declared that Northern Whigs can never again combine with their Southern brethren in support of slavery. This is a good augury. The clergy of New England, some of whom, forgetful of the traditions of other days, once made their pulpits vocal for the fugitive slave bill, now, by the voices of learned divines, eminent bishops, accomplished professors, and faithful pastors, uttered in solemn remonstrance, unite at last in putting a permanent brand upon this hateful wrong. Surely, from this time forward, they can nevermore render it any support. Thank God for this! Here is a sign full of promise for freedom.

These remonstrances have especial significance, when it is urged, as has been often done in this debate, that the proposition still pending proceeds from the North. Yes, sir, proceeds from the North; for that is its excuse and apology. The ostrich is reputed to hide its head in the sand, and then vainly imagine its coward body beyond the reach of pursuers. In similar spirit, honorable Senators seem to shelter themselves behind scanty Northern votes, and then vainly imagine that they are protected from the judgment of the country. The pulpits of New England, representing in unprecedented extent the popular voice there, now proclaim that six States, with all the fervor of religious conviction, protest against your outrage. To this extent, at least, I maintain it does not come from the North.

From these expressions, and other tokens which daily greet us, it is evident that at last the religious sentiment of the country is touched, and through this sentinent I rejoice to believe that the whole North will be quickened with the true life of freedom. Sir Philip Sidney, speaking to Queen Elizabeth of the spirit in the Netherlands animating every man, woman, and child against the Spanish power, exclaimed, "It is the spirit of the Lord, and is irresistible!" A kindred spirit now animates the free States against the slave power, breathing everywhere its involuntary inspiration, and forbidding repose under the attempted usurpation. It is the spirit of the Lord, and is irresistible. The threat of disunion, too often sounded in our ears, will be disregarded by an aroused and indignant people. Ah, sir, Senators vainly expect peace. Not in this way can peace come. In passing such a bill as is now threatened, you scatter from this dark midnight hour no seeds of harmony and goodwill, but, broadcast through the land, dragon's teeth, which haply may not spring up in direful crops of armed men, yet, I am assured, sir, will fructify in civil strife and feud.

From the depths of my soul, as loyal citizen and as Senator, I plead, remonstrate, protest against the passage of this bill. I struggle against it as against death; but, as in death itself corruption puts on incorruption, and this mortal body puts on immortality, so from the sting of this hour I find assurance of that triumph by which freedom will be restored to her immortal birthright in the republic.

Sir, the bill you are about to pass is at once the worst and the best on which Congress ever acted. Yes, sir, worst and best at the same time.

It is the worst bill, inasmuch as it is a present victory of slavery. In a Christian land, and in an age of civilization, a time-honored statute of freedom is struck down, opening the way to all the countless woes and wrongs of human bondage. Among the crimes of history another is soon to be recorded, which no tears can blot out, and which in better days will be

read with universal shame. Do not start. The tea tax and stamp tax, which roused the patriot rage of our fathers, were virtues by the side of your transgression; nor would it be easy to imagine, at this day, any measure which more openly and wantonly defied every sentiment of justice, humanity, and Christianity. Am I not right, then, in calling it the worst bill on which Congress ever acted?

There is another side, to which I gladly turn. Sir, it is the best bill on which Congress ever acted, for it annuls all past compromises with slavery, and makes any future compromises impossible. Thus, it puts freedom and slavery face to face, and bids them grapple. Who can doubt the result? It opens wide the door of the future, when, at last, there will really be a North, and the slave power will be broken — when this wretched despotism will cease to dominate over our government, no longer impressing itself upon everything at home and abroad—when the national government will be divorced in every way from slavery, and, according to the true intention of our fathers, freedom will be established by Congress everywhere, at least beyond the local limits of the States.

Slavery will then be driven from usurped foothold here in the District of Columbia, in the national Territories, and elsewhere beneath the national flag; the fugitive slave bill, as vile as it is unconstitutional, will become a dead letter; and the domestic slave trade, so far as it can be reached, but especially on the high seas, will be blasted by the congressional prohibition. Everywhere within the sphere of Congress the great Northern hammer will descend to smite the wrong; and the irresistible cry will break forth, "No more slave States!"

Thus, sir, standing at the very grave of freedom in Nebraska and Kansas, I lift myself to the vision of that happy resurrection by which freedom will be assured, not only in these Territories, but everywhere under the national government. More clearly than ever before I now penetrate that great future when slavery must disappear. Proudly I discern the flag of my country, as it ripples in every breeze, at last in reality, as in name, the flag of freedom—undoubted, pure, and irresistible. Am I not right, then, in calling this bill the best on which Congress ever acted?

Sorrowfully I bend before the wrong you commit. Joyfully I welcome the promises of the future.

Necessity, Fort. During his march towards Fort Duquesne, in 1754, Washington, at a point on the Monongahela River less than 40 miles from his destination, heard of the approach of a party of French and Indians to intercept him. He fell back to a rich, fertile bottom called The Great Meadows, about 50 miles from Cumberland, where he hastily erected a stockade, which he appropriately called Fort Necessity. While engaged in this work, scouts had observed the stealthy approach of French soldiers. Word to this effect was sent to Washington by a friendly sachem known as Half-King, who stated that the detachment was very near his camp. Putting himself at the head of forty men, he set off, in the intense darkness, at nine o'clock at night, for the encampment of Half-King. The rain fell in torrents, and they did not reach the friendly Indians until just before sunrise on May 28. Half-King and his warriors joined Washington's detachment, and when they found the enemy in a secluded spot among the rocks, they immediately attacked them. A sharp skirmish ensued. Jumonville, who led the French, and ten of his men, were killed, and twenty-two were made prisoners. This was the first blood shed in the French and Indian War. Washington had one man killed, and two or three were wounded.

It was afterwards ascertained that Jumonville was the bearer of a summons for the surrender of Fort Necessity. Two days later Colonel Fry died at Cumberland. Troops hastened forward to join Washington at Fort Necessity. On him the chief command now devolved. Reinforced, he proceeded towards Fort Duquesne with 400 men. At the same time M. de Villiers, brother of Jumonville, was marching, at the head of 1,000 Indians and a few Frenchmen, to avenge his kinsman's death. Hearing of this, Washington fell back to Fort Necessity, where, on July 3, he was attacked by about 1,500 of the foe. After a conflict of about ten hours, De Villiers proposed

an honorable capitulation. Washington signed it on the morning of July 4. Then the troops marched out with the honors of war, and departed for their homes.

Needham, CHARLES WILLIS, lawyer; born in Castile, N. Y.; educated in the common schools and academy and at the Albany Law School, afterwards studying under Ira Harris and Isaac Edwards; graduated in May, 1869, and admitted to the New York State bar in October, 1869;

CHARLES WILLIS NEEDHAM.

removed to Chicago, Ill., in 1876; engaged principally in corporation and railroad law. In 1890 removed to Washington, D. C., and there practised his profession. He has given much time to educational matters, assisting in organizing the present Chicago University, and was a member of its first board of trustees; and was a member of the board of trustees of the Columbian University. In this capacity he labored to increase the standard of work in the law school, secured the increase of the course of study to three years, raised the standard of admission and the tests for graduation, and organized the School of Comparative Jurisprudence and Diplomacy, a post-graduate school for higher legal study; was elected dean in June, 1898, and president in June, 1902, and lectured on Common Law, Trusts and Trade Unions, and Transportation and Interstate Commerce Law. He has been a student of the history of private and international law, a member of the American Bar Association, and attended several congresses at Paris in 1900 as representative of the United States. The University of Rochester, N. Y., at the commencement of June 19, 1901, conferred upon him the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

Negley, JAMES SCOTT, military officer; born in East Liberty, Pa., Dec. 26, 1826; served in the war against Mexico, and when the Civil War broke out raised a brigade of three months' volunteers, and was commissioned a brigadier-general in April, 1861. He assisted in organizing and disciplining volunteers; commanded a brigade of them under General Patterson on the upper Potomac. He served under General Mitchel in the West, and afterwards commanded a division of the Army of the Ohio. For his services in the battle of Stone River he was promoted major-general, and was distinguished in the Georgia campaign and in the battle of Chickamauga. He was a member of Congress from Pittsburg in 1869–75 and 1885–87. He died in Plainfield, N. J., Aug. 7, 1901.

Negro Disfranchisement. See DISFRANCHISEMENT.

Negro Plot. See NEW YORK.

Negro Slavery. See SLAVERY.

Negro Soldiers. When young John Laurens, then in the camp of Washington, heard of the British invasion of his State, early in 1779, he felt anxious to fly to its defence. He proposed to gather a regiment of negroes. Alexander Hamilton recommended the measure to the president of Congress. He was favorable to the plan of emancipation undertaken in Rhode Island, by allowing every able-bodied slave who should enlist for the war his personal freedom. He argued that they would make good soldiers; that their natural faculties were as good as those of white people; that giving them freedom with their muskets would insure their fidelity, animate their courage, and have a good influence on those who should remain, by opening a door for their emancipation. Two days afterwards the elder Laurens wrote to Washington on the subject, saying: "If we had arms for 3,000 such black men as I could enlist in Carolina, I should have no doubt of success in driving the British out of Georgia and subduing East Florida before the end of

July." Washington, guided by prudence and common-sense, replied that the policy was a questionable one, "for, should we begin to form battalions of them [negroes], I have not the smallest doubt, if the war is to be prosecuted, of their [the British] following us in it, and justifying the measure upon our own ground. The contest, then, must be, who can arm fastest? And where are our arms?" Colonel Huger, of South Carolina, proposed that the two southernmost of the thirteen States should detach the most vigorous and enterprising negroes from the rest by arming 3,000 of them under white officers. He explained that his State was weak, because many of its citizens must remain at home to prevent revolt among the slaves, or their desertion to the enemy. Congress recommended the measure of arming the negroes.

These appeals for help against the invaders met no other response. The Carolinian planters were irritated by the proposition to emancipate and arm their slaves, and the executive council was induced (as Prevost and a British army were then besieging Charleston) to ask of the invading general his terms for a capitulation. Prevost offered peace and protection to those who would accept them; to others, to be prisoners of war. The executive council debated the surrender of the town, and, in defiance of remonstrances from Moultrie, young Laurens (who was in Charleston), and others, they proposed "a neutrality during the war between Great Britain and America, the question whether the State shall belong to Great Britain or remain one of the United States to be determined by the treaty of peace between the two powers." Laurens was requested to carry this proposition to Prevost, but he scornfully refused, and another took it. Prevost refused to treat, and demanded the surrender of the troops as prisoners of war. "Then we will fight it out," exclaimed Moultrie, and left the tent of the governor and council. Gadsden followed him out and said, "Act according to your judgment, and we will support you." The British fell back towards Georgia that night.

During the intense excitement following the attack on Fort Sumter (April, 1861), a few colored men in New York, inspired by military movements around them, met in a hired room and began to drill, thinking their services might be wanted. They were threatened by sympathizers with the Confederates, and the superintendent of the police deemed it prudent to order the colored men to desist. More than a year later, GEN. DAVID HUNTER (*q. v.*) directed the organization of colored troops in his Department of the South. It raised a storm of indignation in Congress, and that body, by resolution, inquired whether these were military organizations of fugitive slaves; and if so, whether they were authorized by the government. General Hunter answered that there was no regiment of "fugitive" slaves, but there was "a fine regiment of men whose late masters are fugitive rebels—men who everywhere fly before the appearance of the national flag, leaving their servants behind them to shift as best they can for themselves." A few weeks later (Aug. 25, 1862) the Secretary of War directed the military governor of the coast islands of South Carolina to "arm, uniform, equip, and receive into the service of the United States such number of volunteers of African descent, not exceeding 5,000," as he might deem expedient to guard that region from harm "by the public enemy." Just before, General Phelps recommended to General Butler the arming of negroes; and not long afterwards the former, impressed with the perils of his isolated situation in New Orleans, called for volunteers from the free colored men of that city. Not long afterwards three regiments of colored troops were organized there.

Another year passed by, and yet there were very few colored troops in the service. There was universal prejudice against them. When a draft for soldiers appeared inevitable, that prejudice gave way; and when Lee invaded Pennsylvania (June, 1863) the government authorized the enlistment of colored troops in the free-labor States. Congress authorized (July 16, 1863) the President to accept them as volunteers, and prescribed the enrolment of the militia, which should in all cases "include all able-bodied citizens," without distinction of color. Yet so strong remained the prejudice against

the enlistment of negroes that in May, 1863, Colonel Shaw's Massachusetts regiment was warned that it could not be protected from insult in the city of New York if it should attempt to pass through it, and it sailed from Boston for Port Royal. A few months later a regiment of colored troops, bearing a flag wrought by women of the city of New York, marched through its streets for the battle-field, cheered by thousands of citizens. From that time colored troops were freely enlisted everywhere. Adjutant-General Thomas went to the Mississippi Valley (March, 1863) for the express purpose of promoting such enlistments, and was successful.

Negros, one of the Philippine Islands which accepted American sovereignty, and in which a provisional government was established in 1899.

Nehlig, VICTOR, artist; born in Paris, France, in 1830; came to the United States in 1856, and settled in New York. In 1863 he was elected an Associate of the National Academy, and in 1870 an Academician. His chief paintings include *The Cavalry Charge of St. Harry B. Hidden; Hiawatha and Minnehaha; Armorer in the Olden Time; Battle of Gettysburg; Waiting for My Enemy; The Princess Pocahontas,* etc.

Neill, EDWARD DUFFIELD, author; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Aug. 9, 1823; graduated at Amherst College in 1842; ordained in the Presbyterian Church; chaplain in the National army in 1861–64; secretary to the President for the signing of United States land patents in 1864–69; and United States consul at Dublin, Ireland, in 1869–70; later he joined the Reformed Episcopal Church, and was settled over a church in St. Paul, Minn., in 1884. His publications include *History of Minnesota; Terra Mariæ,* or *Threads of Maryland Colonial History; English Colonization of America; Virginian Company of London; Founders of Maryland; Virginia Vetusa, the Colony under James the First; Virginia Caroloum;* and *Concise History of Minnesota.* He died in St. Paul, Minn., Sept. 26, 1893.

Neill, THOMAS HEWSON, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., April 9, 1826; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1847; on frontier duty till 1853. He was commissioned colonel of the 23d Pennsylvania Volunteers in 1862; distinguished himself at Malvern Hill, and was promoted brigadier of volunteers in October, 1862. In recognition of his bravery at Spottsylvania he was brevetted colonel U. S. A. He commanded the 6th Cavalry against the Cheyenne Indians in 1874–75; and was retired April 2, 1883. He died in Philadelphia, Pa., March 2, 1885.

Neilson, JOHN, military officer; born in New Brunswick, N. J., March 11, 1745; was commissioned colonel of the 2d Middlesex Regiment in 1776; made a brigadier-general of militia in 1777; member of the Continental Congress from New Jersey in 1778–79; and member of the State Assembly in 1800–1. He died in New Brunswick, N. J., March 3, 1833.

Nell, WILLIAM COOPER, author; born of negro parents in Boston, Mass., Dec. 20, 1816; graduated at the Boston grammar school. In 1861 he was appointed a clerk in the Boston post-office, being the first negro to receive an appointment under the United States government. His publications include *Services of Colored Americans in the Wars of 1776–1812;* and *Colored Patriots of the American Revolution.* He died in Boston, Mass., May 25, 1874.

Nelson, CHARLES ALEXANDER, librarian; born in Calais, Me., April 14, 1839; graduated at Harvard College in 1860; quartermaster United States army, 1864–65; appointed Professor of Greek in Drury College in 1879; assistant librarian of Astor Library in 1881; librarian of Howard Library, New Orleans, in 1888; Newberry, Chicago, in 1891; deputy librarian, Columbia University, in 1893. Mr. Nelson is the author of a *History of Waltham,* and compiled a history of the manuscripts and early printed books of S. B. Duryea; *Catalogue of the Astor Library; Catalogue Avery Memorial Library.*

Nelson, HENRY LOOMIS, editor; born in New York City, Jan. 5, 1846; educated at Williams College; admitted to the New York bar in 1868; has been editor of the Boston *Post, Harper's Weekly,* etc., and is the author of *Our Unjust Tariff Law; The Money We Need,* etc.

Nelson, JOHN, jurist; born in Fredericktown, Md., June 1, 1791; graduated at William and Mary College in 1811; ad-

mitted to the bar in 1813; elected to Congress in 1820; appointed United States minister to Naples in 1831; Attorney-General of the United States in 1843. He died in Baltimore, Md., Jan. 8, 1860.

Nelson, JOHN, patriot; born in Massachusetts about 1660; commanded the men who captured Governor Andros in 1689. Later the French took him prisoner while he was on a voyage to Nova Scotia, and sent him to Quebec. On Aug. 26, 1692, he sent a letter to the Massachusetts court, exposing the plans of the French, for which he was arrested, sent to France, and imprisoned for ten years. He died in Massachusetts, Dec. 4, 1721.

Nelson, KNUTE, lawyer; born in Norway, Feb. 2, 1843; emigrated to the United States in 1849; enlisted in the National army during the Civil War; admitted to the bar in 1867; Republican member of Congress, 1883–89; governor of Minnesota, 1892–95; United States Senator, 1895–1907.

Nelson, ROBERT, patriot; born in Yorktown, Va., in 1743; graduated at William and Mary College in 1769; was a soldier in the Revolutionary War, and was captured by the British in June, 1781. His patriotism led him to sacrifice all of his property in behalf of his country. In 1813 he accepted the chair of law in William and Mary College. He died in Malvern Hill, Va., Aug. 4, 1818.

Nelson, ROGER, military officer; born in Fredericktown, Md., in 1735. He was a general in the Revolutionary War, and was severely wounded at the battle of Camden; was a member of Congress from Maryland, 1804–10. He died at Fredericktown, Md., June 7, 1815.

Nelson, SAMUEL, jurist; born in Hebron, Washington co., N. Y., Nov. 10, 1792; graduated at Middlebury College in 1813, and admitted to the New York bar in 1817. He was circuit judge in 1823–31; was then appointed an associate justice of the Supreme Court of New York; and was its chief-justice in 1837–45. In the latter year President Tyler appointed him an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court to succeed Judge Smith Thompson. In the famous DRED SCOTT CASE (*q. v.*) he concurred with the decision of Chief-Justice Taney, holding that, if Congress possessed power under the Constitution to abolish slavery, it must necessarily possess the like power to establish it. In 1871 he was a member of the joint high commission on the *Alabama* claims. Illness compelled him to resign his office in October, 1872. He died in Cooperstown, N. Y., Dec. 13, 1873.

Nelson, THOMAS, military officer; born in Yorktown, Va., Dec. 26, 1738; was educated at Cambridge, England, and, returning home when not yet twenty-one years of age, was elected to the House of Burgesses. He was a member of the popular convention in Williamsburg in 1774 and 1775; was conspicuous in the Virginia convention which, in May, 1776, framed a State constitution; and was then a member of the Continental Congress, in which he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence, 1777. The marauding expedition of Matthews, in May, 1779, caused him to organize the militia to repel it; and a call for a loan of $2,000,000 having been made by the State, Nelson raised the larger portion of it on his own personal security. He also advanced the money to pay the arrears of two Virginia regiments, who would not march to the South until they were paid.

THE NELSON MANSION.

These patriotic sacrifices so impaired his ample fortune that he suffered pecuniary embarrassments in the later years of his life. A part of the year 1781 he was governor of the State. It was while Cornwallis was ravaging the commonwealth. Commanding the militia at the siege of Yorktown, he directed the artillery to bombard his own fine stone

mansion, standing within the British lines, the supposed headquarters of Cornwallis. After the surrender, General Nelson passed the rest of his days in retirement, with an impaired constitution. He died in Yorktown, Va., Jan. 4, 1789, so poor that his remaining possessions were sold to pay his debts. The statue of Nelson is one of the six composing a part of the Washington monument at Richmond. The remains of Thomas Nelson were interred in the old family cemetery at Yorktown, where, until 1860, some of the old monuments were well preserved. Among them was that over the grave of the first immigrant of the family (the one nearest in the picture), who was known as "Scotch Tom." The second one covers the grave of William Nelson, president of the King's Council in Virginia, and in a vault, near the fragment of a brick wall seen beyond, rested the remains of the signer of the Declaration of Independence.

THE NELSON TOMBS AT YORKTOWN.

Nelson, THOMAS HENRY, diplomatist; born in Mason county, Ky., Aug. 12, 1824; studied law in Maysville, Ky.; later settled in Terre Haute, Ind., where he was one of the founders of the Republican party. He was United States minister to Chile in 1861–66, and during this period made himself very popular by his rescue of many persons when the Santiago cathedral was burned, Dec. 6, 1864. He was United States minister to Mexico in 1869–73.

Nelson, THOMAS M., military officer; born in Virginia, 1782; took part in the War of 1812 as a captain, and was promoted to the rank of major; was a member of Congress from Virginia, 1816–19. He died Nov. 10, 1853.

Nelson, WILLIAM, historian; born in Newark, N. J., Feb. 10, 1847; practised law in New Jersey since 1865; member of many historical and scientific societies. Mr. Nelson is the editor of the *New Jersey Archives*, and the author of *The Indians of New Jersey; The Doremus Family; History of Paterson, N. J.*, etc.

Nelson, WILLIAM, colonial governor; born in Yorktown, Va., in 1711; held a seat in the executive council of which he was later president. He was governor of Virginia during the interval between the incumbency of Lord Botetourt and Lord Dunmore, and presided over the Supreme Court of Law of the Province. He died in Yorktown, Va., Nov. 19, 1772.

Nelson, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Maysville, Ky., in 1825; entered the United States navy in 1840; was at the siege of Vera Cruz in 1847; and afterwards served in the Mediterranean. He was ordered into the military service in Kentucky by the government in 1861, with the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers; was successful in raising troops, did good service in eastern Kentucky; commanded the 2d Division of Buell's army in the battle of Shiloh; and, after being wounded in a struggle at Richmond, Ky., was put in command at Louisville, when it was threatened by Bragg's army. In July, 1862, he was promoted major-general of volunteers, and on Sept. 29, following, he died in Louisville, Ky., from a wound received during a quarrel with Gen. Jefferson C. Davis.

Nelson, WILLIAM, patriot; born in Yorktown, Va., in 1760; graduated at William and Mary College in 1776; made major of 7th Virginia Regiment in February of the same year, and was taken prisoner with his brother, Robert, in June, 1781. During 1803–13 he held the professorship of Law in William and Mary College. He died in Malvern Hill, Va., March 8, 1813.

Nelson's Farm, BATTLE OF. See GLENDALE.

Nettleton, ALURED BAYARD, journalist; born in Berlin, O., Nov. 14, 1838; was educated at Oberlin College; entered the Union army as a private in the 2d Ohio

Cavalry at the beginning of the Civil War; and was promoted colonel and brevet-brigadier-general. During the war he took part in seventy-two battles and minor actions. In 1890–93 was assistant Secretary of the United States Treasury; and for some time after the death of Secretary Windom was acting Secretary.

Neutral Ground, a tract of territory that extended along the eastern side of the Hudson River northward from Spuyten Duyvil Creek 40 miles or more. This region, during the occupancy of New York City by the British, 1776–83, suffered much from marauders, both American and British; the former were termed "Skinners," and the latter "Cowboys." See NO-MAN'S-LAND.

Neutral Nation. In the territory on both sides of the Niagara River, between the Hurons and the Iroquois, was a tribe related to both, who remained neutral in the wars between them, and so obtained the name of Attioundironks, or Neuters. The Franciscan missionaries visited them in 1629, and afterwards the Jesuits attempted to plant missions among them, but failed. These Indians informed the Franciscans, or Récollets, of oil-springs in their country, which have become famous in their products in our day. In 1649, after the Iroquois had conquered the Hurons, they attacked the Neuters, who killed many of them, and incorporated the remainder among the Five Nations.

Neutral Powers. By the treaty of Paris between Great Britain, France, Austria, Russia, Prussia, Turkey, and Sardinia, April 16, 1856, privateering was abolished; neutrals might carry an enemy's goods not contraband of war; neutral goods not contraband were free even under an enemy's flag; and blockades to be binding must be effective. The United States acceded to these provisions in 1861. See INTERNATIONAL LAW.

Neutrality. A movement in Europe, known as the "Armed Neutrality," threatened to seriously cripple the power of Great Britain and incidentally aid the Americans in their struggle for independence. It was a league of the leading nations of Europe against the pretensions of Great Britain as "Mistress of the Seas." It was conceived in the summer of 1778, when British cruisers seized American vessels in the Baltic Sea engaged in commerce with Russia. The latter nation was then assuming colossal proportions, and all the others courted the friendship of its empress, Catharine II., who was able and powerful. Great Britain tried to induce her to become an ally against France. Catharine coquetted a long time with King George, while her sympathies were with Sweden, Denmark, and Holland. Their neutral ships were continually interfered with by British sea-rovers, whose acts were justified by the British government. France had gained the good-will of the Northern powers by a proclamation (July, 1778) of protection to all neutral vessels going to or from a hostile port with contraband goods whose value did not exceed three-fourths of the whole cargo.

From that time until the beginning of 1780 the insolence of British cruisers and the tone of the British ministers offended the Northern powers. The tone was often insulting. "When the Dutch," said Lord North, "say '*We* maritime powers,' it reminds me of the cobbler who lived next door to the lord mayor, and used to say, 'My neighbor and I.'" Official language was often equally offensive. The British minister at The Hague said, "For the present, treaty or no treaty, England will not suffer materials for ship-building to be taken by the Dutch to any French port." A similar tone was indulged towards the other powers, excepting Russia. The shrewd Catharine, perceiving the commercial interests of her realm to be involved in the maintenance of the neutral rights of others, after long coquetting with Great Britain, assumed the attitude of defender of those rights before all the world.

Early in March, 1780, she issued a declaration, in substance, (1) that neutral ships shall enjoy free navigation from port to port, and on the coasts of belligerent powers; (2) that free ships free all goods except contraband; (3) that contraband are arms and munitions of war, and nothing else; (4) that no port is blockaded unless the enemy's ships in adequate number are near enough to make the entry dangerous. "In manifesting these principles before all Europe," that

state paper said, "her Imperial Majesty is firmly resolved to maintain them. She has therefore given an order to fit out a considerable portion of her naval forces to act as her honor, her interest, and necessity may require." The Empress invited Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, and the Netherlands to join in support of her declaration. These, with Prussia and Russia, entered into a league in the course of the year. France and Spain acquiesced in the new maritime code; and at one time a general war between Great Britain and the Continental nations seemed inevitable. The United States approved the measure, and towards the close of 1780 sent Francis Dana as ambassador to the Court of St. Petersburg to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. The alliance neither awed nor in any sensible way affected England. The known fickleness and faithlessness of Catharine made other powers hesitate in going to war, and the league resulted in inaction.

When the Berlin decree (see ORDERS IN COUNCIL) was promulgated, John Armstrong, American minister at Paris, inquired of the French minister of marine how it was to be interpreted concerning American vessels, and was answered that American vessels bound to and from a British port would not be molested; and such was the fact. For nearly a year the French cruisers did not interfere with American vessels; but after the peace of Tilsit (July 7, 1807), Napoleon employed the released French army in enforcing his "Continental System." According to a new interpretation of the Berlin decree, given by Regnier, French minister of justice, American vessels, laden with merchandise derived from England and her colonies, by whomsoever owned, were liable to seizure by French cruisers. This announced intention of forcing the United States into at least a passive co-operation with Bonaparte's schemes against British commerce was speedily carried into execution by the confiscation of the cargo of the American ship *Horizon*, which had accidentally been stranded on the coast of France in November, 1807. The ground of condemnation was that the cargo consisted of merchandise of British origin. This served as a precedent for the confiscation of a large amount of American property on the sea. Already Great Britain had exhibited her intended policy towards neutrals. When she heard of the secret provisions of the treaty of Tilsit, in anticipation of the supposed designs of France she sent a formidable naval force to Copenhagen and demanded (Sept. 2) the surrender of the Danish fleet, which being refused, it was seized by force, and the vessels taken to England. See EMBARGO.

In 1816 it was proposed to Spain to accept, on the part of the United States, in satisfaction of the claims against her, a cession of Florida; and, that all controversies between the two governments might be settled at once, to make the Colorado of Texas the western boundary of the United States in Spanish territory. The Spanish minister at Washington demanded, as preliminary to such an arrangement, the restoration to Spain of West Florida, and the exclusion of the flags of insurrectionary Spanish provinces of South America, they being used as privateersmen. An act was accordingly passed in March, 1816, and penalties provided for a violation of it. This act secured peace between the two countries.

On the outbreak of war between Japan and Russia in 1904 President Roosevelt issued a proclamation of neutrality (Feb. 11), and under it the Russian transport *Lena*, which put into San Francisco on Sept. 11, was ordered to be dismantled and detained till the close of the war.

Neuville, CHEVALIER DE LA, military officer; born in France in 1740; became an officer in the French army in 1756. He and his brother offered their services to General Washington, and in 1778 Chevalier was appointed inspector under General Gates. Not receiving the advance in rank which he hoped for in the American army, he resigned and returned to France, where he died at the end of the eighteenth century. His brother, Normiont, served in the American army for two years, when he also returned to France.

Neuville, JEAN GUILLAUME, BARON HYDE DE, statesman; born near Charité-sur-Loire, France, Jan. 24, 1776; was an agent of the exiled Bourbon princes. In 1806 Napoleon offered to restore his estates if he would go to the United States.

He therefore embarked for America, and lived near New Brunswick, N. J. In April, 1814, he returned to France and was sent as a commissioner to England by Louis XVIII. to proffer the friendly mediation of France in settling the difficulties between the United States and England. In 1816–22 he was French minister and consul-general to the United States. Before his return to France he succeeded in negotiating a treaty of commerce and navigation between the United States and France. He was made a baron by Louis XVIII. His publications include *Éloge historique du Général Moreau* and *Observations sur de la France avec les États-Unis*. He died in Paris, May 28, 1847.

Neuville, PHILIPPE, BUACHE DE LA, geographer; born in Neuville-en-Pont, France; was the designer of a new system of geography. After making a careful study of the world's cartography, he concluded that there was a strait between Asia and America, and he included on his map what are now known as Alaska and the Aleutian Islands many years before they were discovered. He also made a chart of the American Pacific coast, which was at that time scarcely known, and declared that either a continent or large islands existed near the south pole. His works include *Considérations géographiques et physiques sur les découvertes nouvelles dans la grande mer*, in which is a chart of the Pacific coast. He died in Paris, Jan. 24, 1773.

Neu-Wied, PRINCE ALEXANDER MAXIMILIAN, military officer; born in Neu-Wied, Germany, Sept. 23, 1782. On his retirement from the Prussian army in 1806 he devoted the remainder of his life to science. He travelled throughout the United States west of the Rocky Mountains in 1833, forming an extremely valuable botanical and zoological collection, which is now in the Museum of Natural History, New York City. He published a record of his travels in North America in 1838. He died in 1867.

Nevada, STATE OF, formed a part of the Mexican cession to the United States by the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo. The Territory of Nevada was created by act of Congress, March 2, 1861, from a portion of Utah. By act of July 14, 1862, a further portion of Utah was added. A State constitution was framed by a convention, and Nevada was admitted into the Union Oct. 31, 1864. Nevada had few inhabitants until after 1859, in the summer of which year silver was found in the Washoe district, when settlers began to pour in. Virginia City sprang up as if by magic, and in 1864 it was the second city west of the Rocky Mountains. Gold had been

STATE SEAL OF NEVADA.

discovered in 1849, by Mormons, but ten years later not more than 1,000 inhabitants were within the Territory. But, two years after the discovery of silver, the number of inhabitants had risen to 16,000. The number of tribal Indians in the State in 1874 was between 4,000 and 5,000. Population in 1880, 62,266; in 1890, 45,761; in 1900, 42,335. See UNITED STATES, NEVADA, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNOR.

James W. Nye	commissioned	March 22, 1861

STATE GOVERNORS.

James W. Nye	acting	Oct. 31,	1864
Henry G. Blasdel	assumes office	Dec. 5,	"
Luther R. Bradley, Dem.	" "	Jan.,	1871
John H. Kinkead, Rep.	" "	Jan.,	1879
Jewett W. Adams, Dem.	" "	Jan.,	1883
Chris. C. Stevenson, Rep.	" "	Jan.,	1887
Frank Bell	acting	Sept. 21,	1891
Roswell K. Colcord, Rep.	assumes office	Jan.,	1891
John E. Jones	" "	Jan.,	1895
Reinhold Sadler	" "	Jan. 1,	1899
John Sparks	" "	Jan. 6,	1903

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
James W. Nye	39th to 43d	1865 to 1873
William M. Stewart	39th " 44th	1865 " 1875
John P. Jones	43d " 58th	1873 " 1903
William Sharon	44th " 47th	1875 " 1881
James G. Fair	47th " 50th	1881 " 1887
William M. Stewart	50th " 57th	1888 " 1905
Francis G. Newlands	58th " ——	1903 " ——
George S. Nixon	59th " ——	1905 " ——

Neville, JOHN, military officer; born in Prince William county, Va., in 1731; served with Braddock in his expedition in 1755, and was a representative to the provincial convention from Augusta county in 1774. During the Revolutionary War he was colonel of the 4th Virginia Regiment, and was in the battles at Trenton, Princeton, Monmouth, and Germantown. Later he was an inspector of excise, and aided in suppressing the whiskey insurrection of 1794. He died near Pittsburg, Pa., July 29, 1803.

Neville, PRESLEY, military officer; born in Pittsburg, Pa., in 1756; graduated at the College of Philadelphia in 1775; served as aide-de-camp to Lafayette during a part of the Revolutionary War; and was captured at Charlestown in 1780. Later he was made a brigadier-inspector. He died in Fairview, Ohio, Dec. 1, 1818.

New Albion. On June 21, 1634, a patent, under the great seal of Ireland, was granted by the Earl of Strafford (then lord-lieutenant) to Edward Plowden, of a province which included the whole of New Jersey, with all the adjacent islands, which was named New Albion. Nothing came of it. This grant shows that the Dutch title to New Netherland was not recognized by the English.

New Amstel. In 1656 the Dutch West India Company transferred to the City of Amsterdam all the Dutch territory on the South (Delaware) River, from the west side of Christian Kill to the mouth of the river, for the sum of 700,000 guilders. It was named Nieuwe Amstel, after one of the suburbs belonging to the city between the Amstel River and the Haerlem Sea. The burgomasters of Amsterdam appointed six commissioners to manage the colony, who were to "sit and hold their meetings at the West India House on Tuesdays and Thursdays." The city offered a free passage to emigrants, lands for residences, provisions and clothing for a year, and a proper person for a school-master, who should also read the Scriptures in public, and set the Psalms. The municipal government was the same as in Amsterdam. The colonists were not to be taxed for ten years, and regulations were made in respect to trade. The States-General ratified all the arrangements, on condition that when there should be 200 inhabitants in the colony a church should be organized and a clergyman established there. There was a garrison of sixty soldiers sent out, under Captain Martin Crygier. Fort Kasimer was transferred to the new corporation, and in April, 1657, nearly 200 emigrants sailed for New Amstel. A government was formally organized on April 21, 1657. Shipwrecked Englishmen from Virginia, whom the Dutch had rescued from the Indians, became residents of New Amstel, and prosperity marked the settlement. In 1658 there was a "goodly town of about 100 houses," and the population exceeded 600. The people, however, soon began to be discontented, and many deserted the colony. Rumors came that Maryland was about to claim the territory, and there was much uneasiness and alarm. These rumors were followed by an agent of the Maryland government, who demanded that the Dutch should either take an oath of allegiance to Lord Baltimore or leave. Discouragements and disasters followed, and the city council of Amsterdam proposed to retransfer New Amstel to the Dutch West India Company. In 1659 the colony was overwhelmed with debt, its soldiers had all left but five, and the inhabited part of the colony did not extend beyond two Dutch miles from Fort Kasimer. In 1664 it, with all NEW NETHERLAND (*q. v.*), was surrendered to the English, who plundered the people of their crops, live-stock, stores, and provisions. Some of the inhabitants were seized as prisoners of war, and sold into bondage in Virginia.

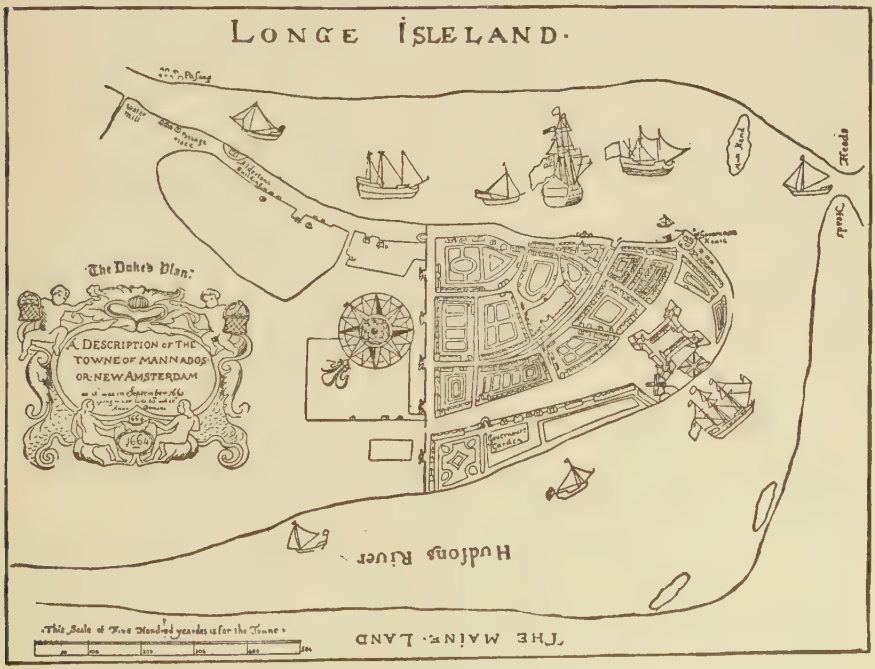
New Amsterdam. The village that grew around the trading-post on Manhattan Island was called Manhattan until the arrival of Governor Stuyvesant, in 1647, when it was called New Amsterdam. Fort Amsterdam, a large work "with four angles," and faced with solid stone, had been built by Governor Minuit on the southern point of the island. The village grew apace. Its ways were crooked, its houses straggling, and its whole aspect was unattractive until, under the new administration, improvements were begun, when it contained about 800 people. They were under the immediate government of the director-general, and there

was much restiveness under the rigorous rule of Stuyvesant, who opposed every concession to the popular will. They asked for a municipal government, but one was not granted until 1652, and in 1653 a city government was organized, much after the model of old Amsterdam, but with less political freedom. The soul of Stuyvesant was troubled by this "imprudent intrusting of power with the people." The burghers wished more power, but it could not then be obtained. A city seal and a "silver signet" for New Amsterdam, with a painted coat-of-arms, were sent to them from Holland. The church grew, and as there were freedom and toleration there in a degree, the population increased, and the Dutch were soon largely mixed with other nationalities. When a stranger came, they did not ask him what was his creed or nation, but only, Do you want a lot and to become a citizen? The Hollanders had more enlarged views of the rights of conscience than any other people at that time. New, like old, Amsterdam became quite a cosmopolitan town. Of the latter, Andrew Marvell quaintly wrote:

"Hence Amsterdam, Turk, Christian, pagan, Jew,
Staple of sects and mint of schism grew;
That bank of conscience where not one so strange
Opinion but finds credit and exchange;
In vain for Catholics ourselves we bear—
The *Universal Church* is only there."

When New Amsterdam was surrendered to the English (1664) it contained more than 300 houses and about 1,500 people.

On the return of Governor Stuyvesant from his expedition against the Swedes on the Delaware he found the people of his capital in the wildest confusion. Van Dyck, a former civil officer, detected a squaw stealing peaches from his garden and killed her. The fury of her tribe was kindled, and the long peace of ten years with the barbarians was suddenly broken. Before daybreak on Sept. 15, 1655, almost 2,000, chiefly of the River Indians, appeared before New Amsterdam in an immense flotilla of canoes.



MAP OF NEW AMSTERDAM IN 1661.

They landed and distributed themselves through the town, and, under the pretence of looking for Northern Indians, broke into several dwellings in search of Van Dyck. The people immediately assembled at the fort, and summoned the leaders of

VIEW OF NEW AMSTERDAM, 1656.

the invasion before them. The Indians agreed to leave the city before sunset. They broke their promise, and in the evening shot Van Dyck. The inhabitants flew to arms, and drove the Indians to their canoes. They crossed the Hudson and ravaged New Jersey and also Staten Island. Within three days 100 white people were killed, and 150 were made captives. See NEW NETHERLAND; NEW YORK.

New Brunswick, SKIRMISH AT. In June, 1777, Sir William Howe tried to outgeneral Washington in New Jersey, but failed, and was compelled to retreat. Washington held Howe firmly in check at and near New Brunswick, on the Raritan; and on June 20 the former, with his army at Middlebrook, learned that his antagonist was preparing to fall back to Amboy. Hoping to cut off his rear-guard, Washington ordered (June 21) Maxwell to lie between New Brunswick and Amboy, and Sullivan to join Greene near the former place, while the main body should rest within supporting distance. These orders failed of execution. On the morning of the 22d the column of Germans, under De Heister, began its march towards Amboy. The corps of Cornwallis moved more slowly, for it had to cross the Raritan over a narrow bridge, near the end of which stood Howe, on high ground, watching the movements. Greene had a battery of three guns on a hill, but too far distant to be effective. When more than one-half of Cornwallis's column had passed the bridge, his pickets were fiercely attacked by Morgan with his riflemen, and were driven back upon the main column. Howe instantly put himself at the head of the two nearest regiments to meet the attack, when a sharp skirmish for half an hour occurred. The British artillery, having been brought to bear on Morgan's corps, swept the woods with grape-shot and caused the riflemen to retreat. Between fifty and 100 of the British were killed or wounded. The rest of their march to Amboy was unobstructed.

New Connecticut. Sixteen of the newly formed townships on the eastern side of the Connecticut River, wishing to escape the heavy burden of taxes imposed by the Revolutionary War, applied to isolated and independent Vermont to be re-

ceived as a part of that State. They were adopted (1779) under the pretence that, by Mason's patent of New Hampshire, that State extended only 60 miles inland, and that those towns were west of that limit. As Vermont yet hoped to be admitted to the Union, and the Continental Congress, disapproving of the proceeding, sent a committee to inquire into the matter, the connection with the New Hampshire towns was very soon dissolved. An ineffectual attempt was then made (June, 1779) by the towns on both sides of the river to constitute themselves into a State, with the title of "New Connecticut." New Hampshire retaliated by renewing her old claim to the territory of Vermont as the New Hampshire Grants (see NEW HAMPSHIRE). Very soon Vermont began to act on the offensive. The towns on the east bank of the river that were to form a part of New Connecticut were again received as a part of Vermont, and along with them all the new townships of New York east of the Hudson and north of the Massachusetts line.

New England. Sir Humphrey Gilbert (1583) and Bartholomew Gosnold (1602) visited the New England coast, and the latter planted a temporary colony there. The account given by Gosnold excited desires on the part of friends of Sir Walter Raleigh to make new efforts to found settlements in America, especially in the northeastern parts. Richard Hakluyt, who was learned in naval and commercial science (see HAKLUYT, RICHARD), Martin Pring, and Bartholomew Gosnold, all friends of Raleigh, induced merchants of Bristol to fit out two ships in the spring of 1603 to visit the coasts discovered by Gosnold. Early in April (a fortnight after the death of Queen Elizabeth), the *Speedwell*, of 50 tons, and the *Discoverer*, 26 tons, sailed from Milford Haven under the command of Pring, who commanded the larger vessel in person. William Browne was master of the *Discoverer*, accompanied by Robert Galterns as supercargo or general agent of the expedition. They entered Penobscot Bay early in June, and went up the Penobscot River some distance; then, sailing along the coast, they entered the mouths of the Saco and other principal streams of Maine; and finally, sailing southward, they landed on a large island abounding with grapes, which they named Martin's (corrupted to Martha's) Vineyard.

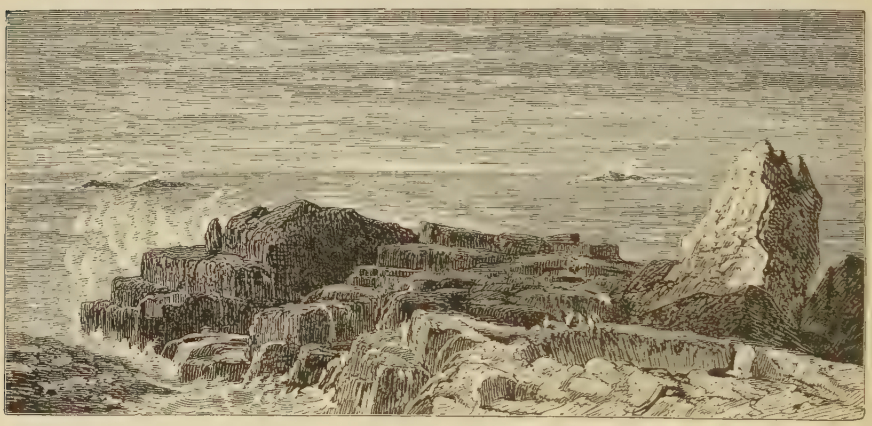
Returning to England at the end of six months, Pring confirmed Gosnold's account of the country. This led to other expeditions; and in 1605 the Earl of Southampton and Lord Arundel fitted out a vessel and placed it under the command of George Weymouth, another friend of Raleigh, who had explored the coasts of Labrador in search of a northwest passage to India. He sailed from England in March, 1605, taking the shorter passage pursued by Gosnold; but storms delayed him so that it was six weeks before he saw the American coast at Nantucket. Turning northward, he sailed up a large river 40 miles and set up crosses. He then entered Penobscot Bay, where he opened traffic with the natives. At length Weymouth thought he observed signs of treachery on the part of the Indians, and he determined to resent the affront. He invited some of the leading Indians to a feast on board of his vessel, but only three of the cautious natives appeared. These he made drunk, and confined them in his vessel. Then he went on shore with a box of trinkets and tried in vain to induce some of them to go to the vessel; so Weymouth and his men seized two of them, and, after great exertion, they were taken to the ship, with two handsome birch-bark canoes. "It was as much as five or six of us could do to get them into the boat," wrote Weymouth, "for they were strong, and so naked that our best hold was by the hair of their heads."

Then the anchor was raised, the vessel sailed to England, and three of the captives were given to Sir Ferdinando Gorges, governor of Plymouth. This outrage left on the shores of New England the seeds of much future trouble with the natives. By these voyages and explorations all doubts about the commercial value of every part of North America were definitely settled, and led to the almost immediate execution of a vast plan for colonizing the shores of the Western Continent by obtaining from King James I. a patent for a domain extending from lat. 34° to 45° N. This territory was divided, and two companies were formed to settle it—one called the "London Company," and the other

the "Plymouth Company." The latter company, destined to settle the northern portion, possessing much narrower resources than the other, its efforts were proportionably more feeble and inadequate. Some visits to and slight explorations of the region were made during six or seven years by the Plymouth Company after obtaining their charter, but discouragements ensued. At length the restless Captain Smith, who did not remain long idle after his return from Virginia in 1609, induced four London merchants to join him in fitting out two ships for the purpose of discovery and traffic in northern Virginia, the domain of the Plymouth Company.

With these ships Smith left the Downs at the beginning of March, 1614, Capt. Thomas Hunt commanding one of the vessels, and he the other. They first landed on Mohegan Island, 20 miles south of the mouth of the Penobscot River, where they sought whales but found none. Leaving most of the crew to pursue ordinary fishing, Smith had seven small boats built, in which he and eight men ranged the coast from Penobscot eastward and westward. They went as far south as Cape Cod, bartering with the natives for beaver and other furs. They went up the several rivers some distance in the interior, and after an absence of seven months the expedition returned to England. From his observations of the coasts, islands, and headlands, Captain Smith constructed a map, which he laid before Prince Charles (afterwards Charles I.), a young man of considerable literary ability and artistic taste. Sir Francis Drake had given the name of New Albion (New England) to the region of the continent which he had discovered on the Pacific coast, and the region now discovered by Smith on the Atlantic coast, opposite Drake's New Albion, was, out of respect to that great navigator, called "New England," or New Albion. It has been so called ever since.

It includes the country from 20 miles east of the Hudson River and the eastern shores of Lake Champlain to the eastern boundary of the United States, and includes the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Vermont. Smith named the promontory at the north entrance to Massachusetts Bay Tragabigzanda, in compliment to a Turkish lady to whom he had been a slave in Constantinople. Prince Charles, however, in filial regard for his mother (Anne of Denmark), named it Cape Anne. Smith gave his name to a cluster of islands, which were afterwards named Isles of Shoals. These and other places, changed from names given by Smith, still retain their new names. The crime of Weymouth was repeated on this expedition. Captain Smith left Hunt, an avaricious and profligate man, to finish

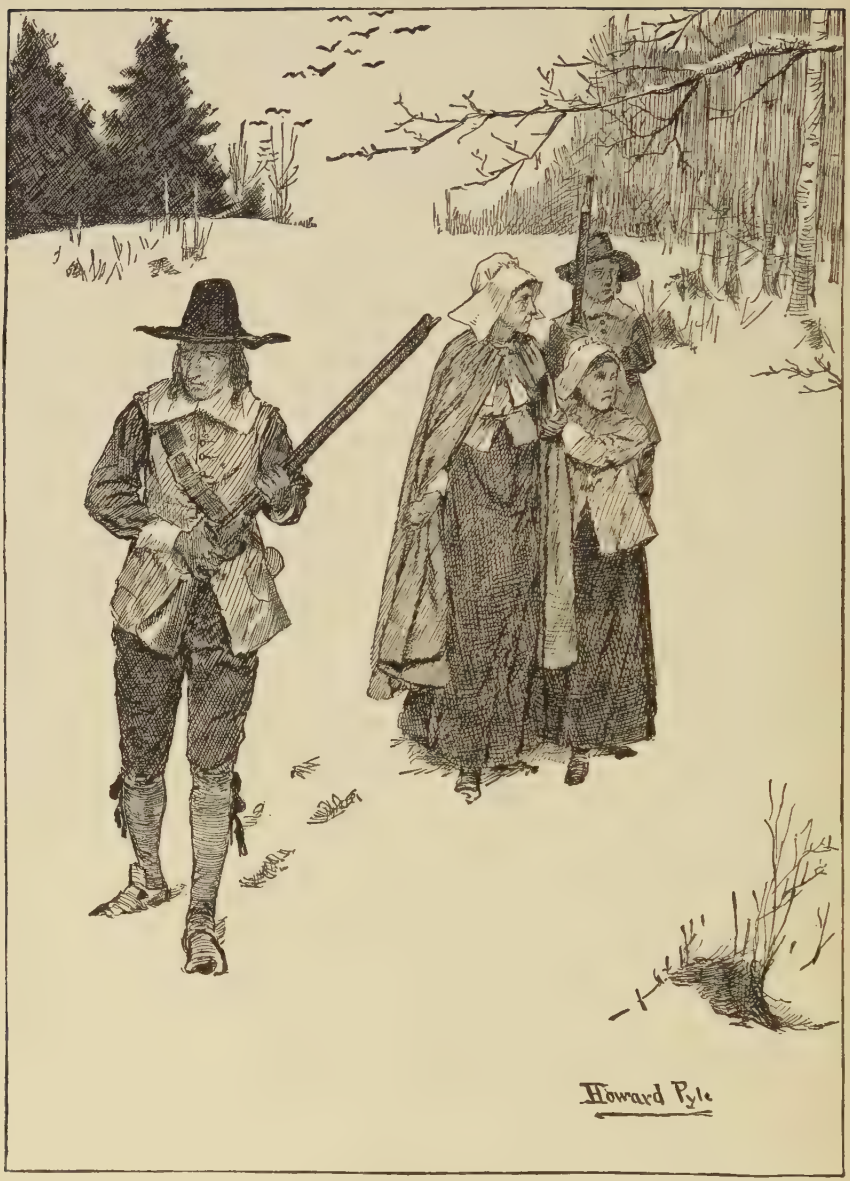


SCENE ON THE ISLES OF SHOALS.

the lading of his vessel with fish, and instructed him to take the cargo to Malaga, Spain, for a market. Hunt sailed along the New England coast, and at Cape Cod he enticed a chief named Squanto and twenty-six of his tribe on board his vessel and treacherously carried them to Spain, where all but two of them were sold for slaves. Some benevolent friars took them to be educated for missionaries among the Indians, but only two (one of them Squanto) returned to America. The natives on the New England coast were greatly exasperated; and when, the same year, another English vessel came to those shores to traffic, bringing with them the two kidnapped natives, the latter united with their countrymen in a measure of revenge. In twenty canoes the Indians attacked the Englishmen with arrows, wounding the master of the ship and several others of the company, and the adventurers hastened back to England. The natives of New England long remembered these outrages.

The magistrates and ministers, in the early days of the New England colonies, undertook to regulate by law the morals and manners of the people, and made statutes which to-day appear absurd, but were then regarded as essential to the well-being of society. The PURITANS (*q. v.*) were not only rigid moralists, but inflexible bigots and absurd egotists. They must be judged by the age and the circumstances in which they lived. Among many excellent laws were scattered some of equivocal utility, like the following: They doomed to banishment, and, in case of return, to death, Jesuits, Romish priests, and Quakers. All persons were forbidden to run, or even to walk, "except reverently to and from church," on Sunday, or to profane the day by sweeping their houses, cooking their food, or shaving their beards. Mothers were commanded not to kiss their children on that holy day. Burglars and robbers suffered the extra punishment of having an ear cut off if their crime was committed on Sunday. Blasphemy and idolatry were punishable by death; so also were witchcraft and perjury directed against human life. All gaming was prohibited. The importation of cards and dice was forbidden. Assemblies for dancing were proscribed. A Massachusetts law, passed in 1646, made kissing a woman in the street, even in the way of honest salutation, punishable by flogging. No one was allowed to keep a tavern unless possessed of a good character and competent estate. Persons wearing apparel which a grand jury should account disproportionate to their positions were to be first admonished, and, if contumacious, fined. Every woman who should cut her hair like a man's, or suffer it to hang loosely upon her face, was fined. Idleness, swearing, and drunkenness were visited with restraining penalties. In the earlier records of Massachusetts it is revealed that John Wedgewood, for being in the company of drunkards, was to be set in the stocks. Catharine, wife of Richard Cornish, was suspected of incontinence, and seriously admonished to take heed. Thomas Pitt, on suspicion of slander, idleness, and stubbornness, was sentenced to be severely whipped. Captain Lovell was admonished to take heed of light carriage. Josias Plaistowe, for stealing four baskets of corn from the Indians, was ordered to "return them eight baskets, to be fined five pounds, and thereafter to be called by the name of Josias, and not Mr., as formerly he used to be."

Expansion and aggression were two conspicuous characteristics of the New England colonists. The Plymouth people early sought to plant outlying settlements on the Eastern coasts; and after the beautiful country along Long Island Sound, west of the Pequod (Thames) River, was revealed to the New-Englanders, they planted a settlement at New Haven and, pushing westward, crowded the Dutch not only on the mainland, but on Long Island. In 1639, Lewis Gardiner purchased an island still known as Gardiner's Island, at the east end of Long Island; and James Farrett, sent out by the Earl of Stirling (see ALEXANDER, SIR WILLIAM), took possession of Shelter Island, near by, at the same time claiming the whole of Long Island. In 1640 a company from Lynn, Mass., led by Capt. Daniel Howe, attempted a settlement at Cow Neck, in North Hempstead, Long Island, when they tore down the arms of the Prince of Orange which they found upon a tree, and carved in place of the



EARLY SETTLERS IN NEW ENGLAND.

shield a grinning face. Howe and his companions were driven off by the Dutch, and settled on the eastern extremity of Long Island. Some New Haven people took possession of Southold, on the Sound; and only a few years later, Hempstead, Jamaica, Flushing, Southampton, East Hampton, Brookhaven, Huntington, and Oyster Bay were settled by the English and some of them were united to Connecti-

cut politically, until after the surrender of New Netherland to the English in 1664, when all Long Island came under the jurisdiction of NEW YORK (*q. v.*).

In 1640 a New England captain purchased some land on the Delaware River of the Indians. Early the next spring colonists from New England, led by Robert Cogswell, sailed from the Connecticut for the Delaware in search of a warmer climate and more fertile soil. They lay for a few days at Manhattan, when they were warned not to encroach upon New Netherland territory. The English, according to De Vries, "claimed everything"; and these New-Englanders went on and had no trouble in finding Indians to sell them "unoccupied lands." Indeed, the Indians were ready to sell the same lands to as many people as possible. At the middle of the summer they had planted corn and built trading-posts on Salem Creek, N. J., and near the mouth of the Schuylkill in Pennsylvania. Both settlements prospered, and the New Haven colony took them under their protection. They came to grief in the spring of 1642. The intrusion of the New-Englanders was as distasteful to the Swedes on the Delaware as to the Dutch; and when the Dutch commissioner at Fort Nassau was instructed by Governor Kieft to expel them, the Swedes assisted the Dutch with energy. The New-Englanders yielded without resistance. They were carried prisoners to Manhattan, and thence sent home to Connecticut. In 1644 a vessel was fitted out by a Boston company, and ascended the Delaware in search of the great interior lakes of which rumors had reached Massachusetts, and whence they supposed much of the supply of bear-skins was derived. The vessel was closely followed by two pinnaces, one Dutch and the other Swedish. The New-Englanders were forbidden to trade with the Indians, and the vessel was not allowed to pass the Swedish fort. Thus excluded from the Delaware, the New-Englanders approached the Hudson River, by establishing a trading-post on the Housatonic, nearly 100 miles from the Sound.

Governor Andros, appointed by James II. president of New England, exercised his powers in a tyrannous manner. He, with his council, made laws and levied taxes at their pleasure. Without the voice of an assembly, they levied a penny on the pound on all the estates in the country, and another penny on all imported goods, besides 20*d.* per head as poll-tax, and an immoderate excise on wine, rum, and other liquors. In many towns the inhabitants refused to levy the assessments; and as this was construed by the tyrant as seditious, punishments were inflicted. The selectmen of Ipswich voted, in 1688, "That inasmuch as it is against the privilege of English subjects to have money raised without their own consent in an assembly or parliament, therefore they will petition the King for liberty of an assembly before they make any rates." For this offence Sir Edmund caused them to be fined—some $100, some $150, and some $250. So offensive became the government of Andros that some of the principal colonists sent the Rev. Increase Mather to England to represent their grievances to the King. His agency availed nothing, for Andros was acting under instructions from the monarch.

New England Theology.—Before the War of 1812–15, the Congregational clergy of New England still adhered to the old colonial notion of having provision made by law for the public support of religious institutions. The Congregational clergy formed a powerful element in the State. They had been the standard-bearers of that section of the Federal party who had most violently opposed the war. Their pulpits rang with denunciations of the administration and the Democratic leaders. This Church establishment was really a strong if not a main pillar of support for the New England Federal party. But a great revulsion of feeling took place; and in all the States where no Church establishments existed by the support of legal provisions, great efforts were made to build up a voluntary system of religious institutions. In consequence of this effort there was a rapid increase in the numbers and influence of Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians. Their churches multiplied; and, in a degree, they united into aggregate associations. Great religious excitement prevailed in all parts of the country, after the close of the war, characterized by the features of the revival under

the preaching of Whitefield forty or fifty years before.

These new sectaries held that a change of heart and an internal consciousness of a call were sufficient, without human learning, to qualify a man for the Gospel ministry and a teacher of morals. These notions found much resistance among the New England clergy, who insisted that the ministry should be educated; and they repudiated the idea of placing the most learned and most ignorant on a level as spiritual teachers and leaders. The Whitefieldian revival had left two elements within the New England Church establishment, which, though radically opposed, adhered by the force of mutual interest and forbearance. These were the Latitudinarians and Evangelicals. The former maintained their predominance in the churches, and thought religion of consequence, principally, as affording security for government and property, and a basis for morals. They revered the Bible, but insisted upon interpreting it by the lights of reason and science. These Latitudinarians were pushing a portion of the Congregational churches of New England towards a repudiation of the five distinguishing points of Calvinistic theology, denying most vehemently the fundamental doctrine of total depravity. In the evangelical section of the Congregational churches in New England this heresy produced alarm.

The headquarters of the evangelical party was Yale College, Timothy Dwight, the president, and grandson of the great theologian Jonathan Edwards, being one of its most conspicuous leaders. They gradually obtained control of the Connecticut and New Hampshire churches; but in Massachusetts they were less successful. Harvard College was in the hands of the Latitudinarians, who possessed, also, all the Congregational churches of Boston, besides many others in different parts of the State. Andover Theological Seminary was established (1808) as the source and seat of a purer theology, to counteract the influence of Harvard. Evangelical ministers were sent from Connecticut to convert backsliding Bostonians. They were zealous but not very successful in their missionary work. This evangelical party had been characterized by a growing austerity, a denunciation of everything in the shape of amusements, public or private, a particular zeal for the observance of the Sabbath, and a marked tendency towards a return to the rigid system of morals and theology of the early Puritans in New England. In 1815 the Evangelicals presented numerous petitions to Congress and the State legislatures, praying for a law to stop the carriage of the mail on Sunday; and many annoying attempts were made to enforce the old and obsolete New England laws against travelling on Sunday.

These movements had a political effect. The Liberals, or Latitudinarians, of New Hampshire saw no other means of protection against the reign of puritanical legislation than to join the Democrats in overthrowing an establishment with which they no longer sympathized. Even the most liberal of the clergy were very chary of open opposition to these new theological rigors; but the body of the intelligent and educated laymen, among whom latitudinarian ideas were completely predominant, was as little disposed to go back to Puritan austerities as to Puritan theology. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts put a stop to the efforts of the zealous people who clamored for legislation in favor of a rigorous observance of the Sabbath, by deciding that an arrest on Sunday, for the violation of the Sunday law, was as much a violation of that law by the arresting officer as travelling on Sunday.

New England Emigrant Company. This corporation was formed at Boston in 1855 for the purpose of aiding free-State emigration to Kansas.

New France. That part of North America held by France. It began with Champlain's settlement in 1608, and ended in 1763, when France ceded practically all her North American possessions to England. See FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, and cognate titles.

New Hampshire, COLONY OF, was for many years a dependent of Massachusetts. Its short line of sea-coast was probably first discovered by Martin Pring in 1603. It was visited by Capt. John Smith in 1614. The enterprising Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who had been engaged in colonizing projects many years as one of the most active members of the Plymouth

Company, projected a settlement farther eastward than any yet established, and for that purpose he became associated with John Mason, a merchant (afterwards a naval commander, and secretary of the Plymouth Council of New England), and others. Mason was a man of action, and well acquainted with all matters pertaining to settlements. He and Gorges obtained a grant of land (Aug. 10, 1622) extending from the Merrimac to the Kennebec, and inland to the St. Lawrence. They named the territory the Province of Laconia; and to forestall the French settlements in the east, and secure the country to the Protestants, Gorges secured a grant from Sir William Alexander of the whole mainland eastward of the St. Croix River, excepting a small part of Acadia. Mason had already obtained a grant of land (March 2, 1621) extending from Salem to the mouth of the Merrimac, which he called Mariana; and the same year a colony of fishermen seated themselves at Little Harbor, on the Piscataqua, just below the site of Portsmouth.

Other fishermen settled on the site of Dover (1623), and there were soon several fishing-stations, but no permanent settlement until 1629, when Mason built a house near the mouth of the Piscataqua, and called the place Portsmouth. He and Gorges had agreed to divide their domain at the Piscataqua, and Mason, obtaining a patent for his portion of the territory, named it New Hampshire. He had been governor of Portsmouth, in Hampshire, England, and these names were given in commemoration of the fact. In the same year (1629), Rev. Mr. Wheelwright, brother of the notable Anne Hutchinson, purchased from the Indians the Wilderness, the Merrimac, and the Piscataqua, and founded Exeter. Mason died in 1633, and his domain passed into the hands of his retainers in payment for past services. The scattered settlements in New Hampshire finally coalesced with the Massachusetts Colony (1641), and the former colony remained a dependent of the latter until 1680, when New Hampshire became a separate royal province, ruled by a governor and council, and a House of Representatives elected by the people. The settlements in New Hampshire gradually extended westward, and until 1764 it was supposed the territory now Vermont was included in that of New Hampshire, and grants of land were made there by the authorities of the latter province.

The people of New Hampshire engaged earnestly in the disputes between Great Britain and her American colonies, and they were the first to form an independent State government (Jan. 5, 1776). It was temporary, intended to last only during the war; a permanent State government was not established until June 4, 1784. During the Revolutionary War the people of New Hampshire took an active part. Their men were engaged in many important battles, from that of Bunker Hill to

FIRST SEAL OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

that at Yorktown; and were particularly distinguished for their bravery in the battles of Bennington, Bemis's Heights, Saratoga, and Monmouth. The first seal of New Hampshire as an independent State is represented in the engraving. The tree and fish indicate the productions of the State.

Shortly after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), settlements in New Hampshire began to extend westward of the Connecticut River. The territory of New Hampshire had been reckoned to extend, according to the terms of Mason's grant, only "60 miles in the interior"; the commission of Benning Wentworth, then (1741–67) governor of New Hampshire, included all the territory "to the boundaries of his Majesty's other provinces," and in 1752 he began to issue grants of lands to settlers west of the Connecticut, in what is now the State of Vermont.

New York, by virtue of the duke's patent in 1664, claimed the Connecticut River as its eastern boundary. A mild dispute then arose. New York had relinquished its claim so far east as against Connecticut, and against Massachusetts it was not then seriously insisted upon. Arguing that his province ought to have an extent which would equal that of the western boundary of Massachusetts, Governor Wentworth granted fifteen townships adjoining the recent Massachusetts settlements on the Hoosic. One township was called Bennington, which was in compliment to the governor. Emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts began to settle on the domain, when they were checked by the French and Indian War. Afterwards, violent disputes with New York about these grants ensued. See VERMONT.

New Hampshire, STATE OF. In 1776 the colony of New Hampshire made a public declaration of independence, and established a temporary government to last during the war. On June 12, 1781, a convention framed a State constitution, which, after numerous alterations, went into force June 2, 1784. The constitution provided that once in seven years it

STATE SEAL OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

should be submitted to a vote of the people on proposed amendments. This was done in September, 1791, and the constitution then adopted continues to be the supreme law of the State. A convention sitting in Concord from Nov. 6, 1850, to April 17, 1851, considered numerous proposed amendments, but only one was adopted—namely, removing the property qualifications of representatives. The aggregate number of troops furnished by New Hampshire for the National army during the Civil War was 34,605, of whom 5,518 perished in battle, and 11,039 were disabled by wounds and sickness. Population in 1890, 376,530; in 1900, 411,588. See UNITED STATES, NEW HAMPSHIRE, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS.

Mesheck Weare	assumes office	1775
John Langdon	"	1785
John Sullivan	"	1786
John Langdon	"	1788
John Sullivan	"	1789
Josiah Bartlett	"	1790
John Taylor Gilman	"	1794
John Langdon	"	1805
Jeremiah Smith	"	1809
John Langdon	"	1810
William Plumer	"	1812
John Taylor Gilman	"	1813
William Plumer	"	1816
Samuel Bell	"	1819
Levi Woodbury	"	1823
David L. Morrill	"	1824
Benjamin Pierce	"	1827
John Bell	"	1828
Benjamin Pierce	"	1829
Matthew Harvey	"	1830
Joseph M. Harper	acting	Feb., 1831
Samuel Dinsmoor	assumes office	June, 1831
William Badger	"	1834
Isaac Hill	"	1836
John Page	"	1839
Henry Hubbard	"	1842
John H. Steele	"	1844
Anthony Colby	"	1846
Jared W. Williams	"	1847
Samuel Dinsmoor	"	1849
Noah Martin	"	1852
Nathaniel B. Baker	"	1854
Ralph Metcalf	"	1855
William Haile	"	1857
Ichabod Goodwin	"	1859
Nathaniel S. Berry	"	1861
Joseph A. Gilmore	"	1863
Frederick Smyth	"	1865
Walter Harriman	"	1867
Onslow Stearns	"	1869
James A. Weston	"	1871
Ezekiel A. Straw	"	1872
James A. Weston	"	1874
Person C. Cheney	"	1875
Benjamin F. Prescott	"	1877
Nathaniel Head	"	1879
Charles H. Bell	"	1881
Samuel W. Hale	"	1883
Moody Currier	"	1885
Charles H. Sawyer	"	1887
David H. Goodell	"	1889
Hiram A. Tuttle	"	1891
John B. Smith	"	1893
Charles A. Busiel	"	1895
George A. Ramsdell	"	1897
Frank W. Rollins	"	1899
Chester B. Jordan	"	1901
Nahum J. Bachelder	"	Jan., 1903
John McLane	"	Jan., 1905

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
John Langdon	1st	1789
Paine Wingate	1st to 3d	1789 to 1793
Samuel Livermore	3d " 6th	1793 " 1801
James Sheafe	7th	1801 " 1802
Simeon Olcott	7th to 9th	1801 " 1805
William Plumer	7th " 9th	1802 " 1807
Nicholas Gilman	9th " 13th	1805 " 1814
Nahum Parker	10th	1807 " 1810
Charles Cutts	11th	1810
Jeremiah Mason	13th to 15th	1813 to 1817
Thomas W. Thompson	13th " 14th	1815 " 1817
David L. Morrill	14th " 18th	1817 " 1823
Clement Storer	15th " 16th	1817 " 1819
John F. Parrott	16th " 19th	1819 " 1825
Samuel Bell	18th " 24th	1823 " 1836
Levi Woodbury	19th " 22d	1825 " 1831
Isaac Hill	22d " 24th	1831 " 1836
John Page	24th	1836
Henry Hubbard	24th to 27th	1836 to 1842
Franklin Pierce	25th " 27th	1837 " 1842
Leonard Wilcox	27th	1842
Levi Woodbury	27th to 29th	1842 to 1845
Charles G. Atherton	28th " 31st	1843 " 1849
Benning J. Jenness	29th	1845 " 1846
Joseph Cilley	"	1846 " 1847
John P. Hale	30th to 33d	1847 " 1853
Moses Norris, Jr	31st " 33d	1849 " 1855
Charles G. Atherton	33d	1853
Jared W. Williams	"	1853
John S. Wells	"	1855
James Bell	34th	1855 to 1857
John P. Hale	34th to 38th	1855 " 1865
Daniel Clark	35th " 39th	1857 " 1866
George G. Fogg	39th	1866 " 1867
Aaron H. Cragin	39th to 44th	1866 " 1875
James W. Patterson	40th " 43d	1867 " 1873
Bainbridge Wadleigh	43d " 46th	1873 " 1879
Edward H. Rollins	45th " 48th	1877 " 1883
Henry W. Blair	46th " 52d	1879 " 1891
Austin F. Pike	48th " 49th	1883 " 1886
Person C. Cheney	49th " 50th	1886 " 1888
William E Chandler	50th " 57th	1888 " 1901
Jacob H. Gallinger	52d " ——	1891 " ——
Henry E. Burnham	57th " ——	1901 " ——

New Hanover. On the banks of the Santilla, in the remote South, below the Altamaha, and on Cumberland Island, on the coast, a band of adventurers seated themselves in 1756, and established a colony, which they called New Hanover. They framed rules for its government and for a considerable time held possession of the country southward as far as the St. Mary's River, in defiance of any warnings from the government of South Carolina, and from the Spaniards of St. Augustine.

New Harmony, the first non-religious community established in America. In 1805 a party of Harmonists, members of a sect founded in Würtemberg about 1780, emigrated to America and first settled in Butler county, Pa. In 1814 they removed to Indiana; purchased 27,000 acres of land; and named the settlement Harmony. ROBERT OWEN (*q. v.*) purchased this property in 1824; renamed the settlement New Harmony; and organized a new community which, on Jan. 12, 1826, adopted a constitution under the name of "The New Harmony Community of Equality." On July 4, following, Mr. Owen delivered his famous declaration of mental independence against the trinity of man's oppressors—private property, irrational religion, and marriage. Owen failed in his scheme for a social community, and returned to England. The founders of Harmony, after selling their property in Indiana, returned to Pennsylvania, and established the community of Economy, near Pittsburg. See HARMONY SOCIETY.

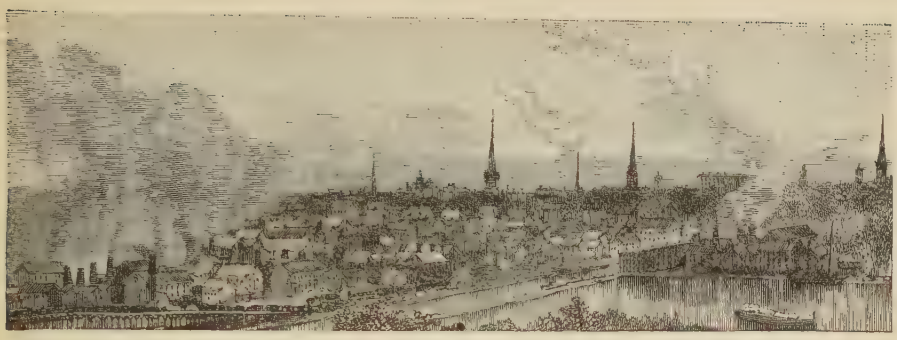
New Haven Colony. After the destruction of the Pequods in the summer of 1637, and peace was restored to the region of the Connecticut, there was a strong desire among the inhabitants of Massachusetts to emigrate thither. Rev. John Davenport, Theophilus Eaton, Edward Hopkins, and others of less note, had arrived at Boston. They heard from those who had pursued the Pequods of the beautiful country stretching along Long Island Sound, and in the autumn (1637) Mr. Eaton and a small party visited the region. They arrived at a beautiful bay, and on the banks of a small stream that entered it they built a log hut, where some of the party wintered. The place had been called by Block, the Dutch discoverer of it, Roodenberg—"Red Hills"—in allusion to the red cliffs a little inland. In the spring of 1638, Mr. Davenport and some of his friends sailed for the spot where Eaton had built his hut. They named the beautiful spot New Haven. Under a wide-spreading oak Mr. Davenport preached on the ensuing Sabbath. They purchased land of the Indians, and proceeded to plant the seeds of a new State by framing articles of association which they called a "Plantation Covenant." In it they resolved "that, as in matters that concern the gathering and ordering of a church, so likewise in all public offices which concern civil order, as choice of magistrates and officers, making and repealing of laws, dividing allotments of inheritance, and all things of like nature," they would "be ordered by the rules which the Scriptures held forth."

So they began their independent settlement without reference to any govern-

ment or country on the earth. The place where the hut was built was on the present corner of Church and George streets, New Haven, and their first temple of worship—the wide-spreading tree—stood at the intersection of George and College streets. This little community meditated and prayed for light concerning the best social and political organization for the government of the colony. When, in the summer of 1639, it was found that they were "nearly of one mind," they assembled in a barn to settle upon a plan of government "according to the Word of God"; Mr. Davenport prayed and preached earnestly, and proposed for their adoption four fundamental articles — namely, 1. That the Scriptures contain a perfect rule for the government of men in the family, in the church, and in the commonwealth; 2. That they would be ordered by the rules which the Scriptures hold forth; 3. That their purpose was to be admitted into church-fellowship according to Christ, as soon as God should fit them thereunto; and, 4, That they held themselves bound to establish such civil order, according to God, as would be likely to secure the greatest good to themselves and their posterity. These articles were unanimously adopted, and a plan was arranged to put a government into practical operation.

It was agreed that church-membership should be granted to free burgesses or freemen endowed with political franchises, and that they only should choose magistrates and transact civil business of every kind; that twelve or more men should be chosen from the company and tried for their fitness, and these twelve should choose seven of their number as the seven pillars of the church. The twelve men were chosen, and after due deliberation they selected seven "pillars." Finally these "pillars" proceeded to organize a church. Their assistants, nine in number, were regarded as "free burgesses," and the sixteen chose Theophilus Eaton magistrate for one year. Four other persons were chosen deputies, and these constituted the legislature and executive department of the government of "Quinnipiack," so called from the Indian name of the stream that ran through the settlement. It was a sort of theocracy. They gave no pledge of allegiance to King or Parliament, nor any other authority on the face of the earth, excepting the civil government they had established. They resolved to have an annual General Court, and appointed a secretary and sheriff, and the teachings of the Bible were their guide in all things. They built a meeting-house, regulated the price of labor and commodities, and provided against attacks from the Indians. It was ordained that no person should settle among them without the consent of the community. In 1640 they called the settlement New Haven. The colony flourished in simplicity by itself until 1662, when it was annexed by charter to the colony in the valley, under the general title of CONNECTICUT (*q. v.*). There the foundations of the State were finally laid. The present city of New Haven is chiefly noted as the seat of YALE UNIVERSITY (*q. v.*). Population in 1890, 81,298; 1900, 108,027.

New Jersey, STATE OF, was one of the thirteen original colonies. Its territory was claimed to be a part of New Netherland. A few Dutch traders from New Amsterdam seem to have settled at Bergen about 1620, and in 1623 a company led by Capt. Jacobus May built Fort Nassau, at the mouth of the Timmer Kill, near Gloucester. There four young married couples, with a few others, began a settlement the same year. In 1634, Sir Edward Plowden obtained a grant of land on the New Jersey side of the Delaware from the English monarch, and called it New Albion, and four years later some Swedes and Fins bought land from the Indians in the vicinity and began some settlements. These and the Dutch drove off the English, and in 1665 Stuyvesant dispossessed the Swedes. After the grant of New Netherland (1664) to the Duke of York by his brother, Charles II., the former sent Col. Richard Nicolls with a land and naval force to take possession of the domain. Nicolls was made the first English governor of the territory now named New York, and he proceeded to give patents for lands to emigrants from Long Island and New England, four families of whom at once seated themselves at Elizabethtown. But while Nicolls with the armament was still on the ocean, the duke granted that portion of his terri-



A BIT OF TRENTON, CAPITAL OF NEW JERSEY.

tory lying between the Hudson and Delaware rivers to two of his favorites, Lord Berkeley, brother of the governor of Virginia (see BERKELEY, SIR WILLIAM), and Sir George Carteret, who, as governor of the island of Jersey, had defended it against the parliamentary troops.

Settlements under Nicolls's grants had already been begun at Newark, Middletown, and Shrewsbury, when news of the grant reached New York. Nicolls was amazed at the folly of the duke in parting with such a splendid domain, which lay between the two great rivers and extended north from Cape May to lat. 40° 40′. The tract was named New Jersey in compliment to Carteret. The new proprietors formed a constitution for the colonists. Philip Carteret, cousin of Sir George, was sent over as governor of New Jersey, and emigrants began to flock in, for the terms to settlers were generous, and the constitution was satisfactory. The governor gave the hamlet of four houses where he fixed his seat of government the name of Elizabethtown, in compliment to the wife of Sir George, and there he built a house for himself. A conflict soon arose between the settlers who had patents from Nicolls and the new proprietors, and for some years there were frequent quarrels. Other settlers were rapidly coming in, and in 1668 the first legislative assembly met at Elizabethtown, and was largely made up of representatives of New England Puritanism.

When, in 1670, quit-rents were demanded of the people, discontent instantly appeared, and disputes about land-titles suddenly produced much excitement. Some of the settlers had bought of the Indians, some derived their titles from original Dutch owners, others received grants from Nicolls, and some from Berkeley and Carteret, the proprietors. Those who settled there before the domain came under the jurisdiction of the English united in resisting the claim for quit-rent by the proprietary government. The people were on the verge of open insurrection, and only needed a leader, when James, the second son of Sir George Carteret, arrived in New Jersey. He was on his way to South Carolina. He was ambitious, but dissolute and unscrupulous, and was ready to undertake anything that promised him fame and emolument. He put himself at the head of the malcontents who opposed his cousin Philip, the governor, who held a commission from Sir George. The insurgents called an assembly at Elizabethtown in the spring of 1672, formally deposed Philip Carteret, and elected James their governor. Philip, in the early summer, sailed for England and laid the matter before his superiors. He knew the administration of his cousin would be a chastisement of the people, as it proved to be, for he was utterly incompetent, and his conduct disgusted them. Before orders came from England the insurgents were ready to submit to Philip Carteret's deputy, Captain Berry (May, 1673), and James Carteret immediately sailed for Virginia. Philip Carteret returned next year as governor, made liberal concessions in the name of Sir George, and was quietly accepted by the people.

Among the purchasers of a portion of New Jersey were John Fenwick and Ed-

ward Billinge, both of the Society of Friends. These men quarrelled with regard to their respective rights. The tenets of their sect would not allow them to go to law, so they referred the matter to William Penn, whose decision satisfied both parties. Fenwick sailed for America to found a colony, but Billinge was too much in debt to come, and made an assignment for the benefit of his creditors. The greater part of his right and title in New Jersey fell into the hands of Penn, Gawen Lawrie, and Nicholas Lucas. The matter was now complicated. Berkeley had disposed of his undivided half of the colony. Finally, on July 1, 1676 (O. S.), after much preliminary negotiation, a deed was completed and signed by Carteret on the one side, and Penn, Lawrie, Lucas, and Billinge on the other, which divided the province of New Jersey into two great portions—east Jersey, including all that part lying northeast of a line drawn from Little Egg Harbor to a point on the most northerly branch of the Delaware River, in lat. 41° 40′ N.; and west Jersey, comprehending all the rest of the province originally granted by the Duke of York. East Jersey was the property of Sir George Carteret; west Jersey passed into the hands of the associates of the Society of Friends. West Jersey was now divided

QUAKERS ON THEIR WAY TO CHURCH IN COLONIAL TIMES.

into 100 parts, the proprietors setting aside ten for Fenwick, who had made the first settlement, at Salem, on the Delaware, and arranging to dispose of the remainder for the benefit of Billinge's creditors.

Meanwhile, a large immigration of Quakers from England had occurred, and these settled below the Raritan, under a liberal government. Andros required them to acknowledge his authority as the representative of the duke, but they refused, because the territory had passed out of the possession of James. The case was referred to Sir William Jones, the eminent jurist and Oriental scholar, who decided in favor of the colonists. The first popular Assembly in west Jersey met at Salem in November, 1681, and adopted a code of laws for the government of the people. Late in 1679 Carteret died; and in 1682 William Penn and others bought from his heirs east Jersey, and appointed Robert Barclay governor. He was a young Scotch Quaker and one of the purchasers, who afterwards became one of the most eminent writers of that denomination. Quakers from England and Scotland and others from Long Island flocked into east Jersey, but they were compelled to endure the tyranny of Andros until James was driven from his throne and the viceroy from America, when east and west Jersey were left without a regular civil government, and so remained several years. Finally, wearied with contentions and subjected to losses, the proprietors surrendered the domain of the Jerseys to the crown (1702), and the dissolute Sir Edward Hyde (Lord Cornbury), governor of New York, ruled over the province. Politically, the people were made slaves. It remained a dependency of New York until 1738, when it was made an independent colony, and so remained until the Revolutionary War. Lewis Morris, who was the chief-justice of New Jersey, was commissioned its governor, and was the first who ruled over the free colony (see MORRIS, LEWIS). William Franklin, son of Benjamin Franklin, was the last of the royal governors of New Jersey (see FRANKLIN, WILLIAM). A conditional State constitution was adopted in the Provincial Congress at Burlington, July 2, 1776, and a State government was organized with William Livingston as governor.

After the battle of Princeton and the retreat of the British to New Brunswick, detachments of American militia were very active in the Jerseys. Four days after that event nearly fifty Waldeckers (Germans) were killed, wounded, or made prisoners at Springfield. General Maxwell surprised Elizabethtown and took nearly 100 prisoners. General Dickinson, with 400 New Jersey militia and fifty Pennsylvania riflemen, crossed Millstone River near Somerset Court-house (June 20, 1777), and attacked a large British foraging party, nine of whom were taken prisoners; the rest escaped, but forty wagons, with much booty, fell into the general's hands. About a month later, Colonel Nelson, of New Brunswick, with a detachment of 150 militiamen, surprised and captured at Lawrence's Neck a major and fifty-nine privates of a Tory corps in the pay of the British.

The national Constitution was adopted by unanimous vote in December, 1787, and the State capital was established at Trenton in 1790. The present constitution was ratified Aug. 13, 1844, and has been

SEAL OF THE STATE OF NEW JERSEY.

amended several times since. During the Civil War New Jersey furnished the National army with 79,511 troops. In 1870 the legislature refused to ratify the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, claiming for each State the right to regulate its own suffrage laws. Population in 1890, 1,444,933; in 1900, 1,883,669. See UNITED STATES, NEW JERSEY, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS.

Peter Minuit, governor of New Netherland	assumes office	1624
Wouter Van Twiller,	"	1633
William Keift,	"	1638
John Printz, governor of New Sweden	"	1642
Peter Stuyvesant, governor of New Netherland	"	1646
Philip Carteret, first English governor	"	1664
Edmund Andros, under Duke of York	"	1674

EAST JERSEY.

Philip Carteret	1676
Robert Barclay	1682
Thomas Rudyard, deputy	"
Gawen Lawrie, "	1683
Lord Neill Campbell, "	1686
Andrew Hamilton, "	1687
Edmund Andros	1688
John Tatham	1690
Col. Joseph Dudley	1691
Andrew Hamilton	1692
Jeremiah Basse	1698
Andrew Bowne, deputy	1699
Andrew Hamilton	"

WEST JERSEY.

Board of Commissioners	1676
Edward Billinge	1679
Samuel Jennings, deputy	"
Thomas Olive, "	1684
John Skeine, "	1685
Daniel Coxe	1687
Edward Hunloke, deputy	1690
West Jersey Proprietors	1691
Andrew Hamilton	1692
Jeremiah Basse	1697
Andrew Hamilton	1699

ROYAL GOVERNORS.

	Assumes office.
Edward Hyde, Lord Cornbury	1702
Lord Lovelace	1708
Richard Ingoldsby, lieutenant-governor	1709
Robert Hunter	1710
William Burnett	1720
John Montgomery	1728
Lewis Morris, president of council	1731
William Crosby	1732
John Anderson, president of council	1736
John Hamilton, president of council	"
Lewis Morris	1738
John Hamilton, president	1746
John Reading, president	"
Jonathan Belcher	1747
John Reading, president	1757
Francis Bernard	1758
Thomas Boone	1760
Josiah Hardy	1761
William Franklin	1763

STATE GOVERNORS.

	Assumes office.
William Livingston	1776
William Patterson	1790
Richard Howell	1794
Joseph Bloomfield	1801
John Lambert, acting	1802
Joseph Bloomfield	1803
Aaron Ogden	1812
William S. Pennington	1813
Mahlon Dickerson	1815
Isaac H. Williamson	1817
Peter D. Vroom	1829
Samuel Lewis Southard	1832
Elias P. Seeley	1833
Peter D. Vroom	"
Philemon Dickerson	1836
William Pennington	1837
Daniel Haines	1843
Charles C. Stratton	1844
Daniel Haines	1848
George F. Fort	1851
Rodman M. Price	1854
William A. Newell	1857
Charles S. Olden	1860
Joel Parker	1863
Marcus L. Ward	1866
Theodore F. Randolph	1869
Joel Parker	1872
Joseph D. Bedle	1875
George B. McClellan	1878
George C. Ludlow	1881
Leon Abbett	1884
Robert S. Green	1887
Leon Abbett	1890
George T. Werts	1893
John W. Griggs	1896
David O. Watkins,	Feb. 1, 1898
Foster M. Voorhees	1899
Franklin J. Murphy	1902
Edward C. Stokes	1905

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Jonathan Elmer	1st to 2d	1789 to 1791
William Patterson	1st	1789 " 1790
Philemon Dickerson	1st to 3d	1790 " 1791
John Rutherford	2d " 5th	1791 " 1798
Frederick Frelinghuysen	3d " 4th	1793 " 1796
Richard Stockton	4th " 6th	1796 " 1799
Franklin Davenport	5th " 6th	1798 " 1799
James Schureman	6th	1799 " 1801
Aaron Ogden	6th to 8th	1801 " 1803
Jonathan Dayton	6th " 9th	1799 " 1805
John Condit	8th " 15th	1803 " 1817
Aaron Kitchel	9th " 11th	1805 " 1809
John Lambert	11th " 14th	1809 " 1815
James J. Wilson	14th " 16th	1815 " 1821
Mahlon Dickerson	15th " 23d	1817 " 1833
Samuel L. Southard	16th " 18th	1821 " 1823
Joseph McIlvaine	18th " 19th	1823 " 1826
Ephraim Bateman	19th " 20th	1826 " 1829
Theodore Frelinghuysen	21st " 23d	1829 " 1833
Samuel L. Southard	23d " 27th	1833 " 1842
Garrett D. Wall	24th " 27th	1835 " 1842
William L. Dayton	27th " 32d	1842 " 1851
Jacob W. Miller	27th " 33d	1841 " 1853
Robert F. Stockton	32d	1851 " 1853
John R. Thomson	33d to 37th	1853 " 1862
William Wright	33d " 36th	1853 " 1859
John C. Ten Eyck	36th	1859
Richard S. Field	37th	1862
John W. Wall	"	1863
William Wright	38th to 39th	1863 to 1866
Fred'k T. Frelinghuysen	39th " 41st	1866 " 1869
John P. Stockton	39th	1865 " 1866
Alexander G. Cattell	39th to 42d	1866 " 1871
John P. Stockton	41st " 44th	1869 " 1875
Fred'k T. Frelinghuysen	42d " 45th	1871 " 1875
Theodore F. Randolph	44th " 47th	1875 " 1881
John R. McPherson	45th " 54th	1877 " 1895
William J. Sewell	47th " 50th	1881 " 1887
Rufus Blodgett	50th " 52d	1888 " 1893
James Smith, Jr.	53d " 56th	1893 " 1899
William J. Sewell	54th " 57th	1895 " 1901
John Kean	56th " ——	1899 " ——
John F. Dryden	57th " ——	1902 " ——

New Lights. Whitefield appeared as a remarkable evangelist and revivalist in New England (1740) just after a religious reaction had begun in favor of the old, rigid dogmas of the sole right of the sanctified to obtain salvation by faith alone. Whitefield held similar views. The reactionists were led by Jonathan Edwards, the eminent metaphysician. A wonderful and widespread "revival" ensued, in which many extravagances appeared—outcries, contortions of the face and limbs, etc.—which many regarded as the visible evidences of the workings of divine grace. The revivalists, like most earnest reformers, were aggressive and censorious, lashing without mercy men in high places in the Church. They preached and exhorted wherever they pleased, without the leave of ministers of the parishes, and some of the latter were alarmed at this invasion of their vested rights. The Congregational establishment of New Eng-

land was shaken by a violent internal controversy between the revivalists, who were called "New Lights," and the friends of the old order of things. There was widespread disorder, uncharitableness, and indecorum resulting from the labors of the "New Lights," and some of the leading clergymen condemned the movement in unsparing terms; while fifty-nine ministers in Massachusetts alone expressed their satisfaction at "the happy and remarkable revival of religion in many parts of the land through an uncommon divine influence."

The controversy raged with special violence in Connecticut, and a law was enacted in 1742 to restrain the revivalists, which provided that any settled minister in that colony who should preach in any parish without express invitation should lose all legal right to recover his salary in his own parish; and if any came from other colonies they were to be arrested as "vagrants." After a violent controversy of nine or ten years the law was omitted in a new edition of the laws of Connecticut, though not repealed. This was the beginning of organized revivals of religion, which have prevailed ever since. Among its fruits were vigorous attempts at the conversion of the Indians. David Brainerd, one of the "New Lights," expelled from Yale College for having spoken of a tutor as "destitute of religion," devoted himself to this service, first among the Indians on the frontiers of Massachusetts and New York, and then among the Delawares of New Jersey. Edwards, who had been dismissed from his church at Northampton, became preacher to the Indians at Stockbridge; and Eleazar Wheelock, a "New Light" minister at Lebanon, Conn., established in that town an Indian missionary school.

This great revival had a powerful effect on the political aspect of the colonies by the almost total abandonment of the theocratic idea of a Christian commonwealth, in which every other interest must be made subservient to unity of faith and worship, the State being held responsible to God for the salvation of the souls intrusted to its charge. The revivalists put forth the notion of individual salvation, leaving politics to worldly men or the providence of God, and making prominent the idea not to save the commonwealth, but themselves. It was a quiet but effectual separation of Church and State. Thenceforth theology held very little prominence in the jurisprudence of the colonies. See NEW ENGLAND THEOLOGY; WHITEFIELD, GEORGE.

New London. On Sept. 6, 1781, Benedict Arnold, with Colonel Eyre, of the British army, led a motley force of British and German regulars and American Tories to destroy New London, Conn. The object of this raid on the New England coast was to call back the troops under Washington, then on their campaign against Cornwallis in Virginia. The invaders landed below New London, and, first applying the torch to stores on the wharves, finally laid almost the whole town in ashes, with several vessels. Fifteen vessels, with effects of the fleeing inhabitants, escaped up the river. The property destroyed was valued at $486,000. It is said that Arnold stood in the belfry of a church almost in sight of his birthplace and saw the burning of the town with the coolness of a Nero.

THE OLD COURT-HOUSE, NEW LONDON.

After the war, a committee was appointed by the legislature of Connecticut to make an estimate of the value of property destroyed by the British on the coast of that State; and in 1793 the General Assembly granted 500,000 acres of land lying within

the Western Reserve in Ohio for the benefit of the sufferers by these conflagrations. The region was called the Fire Lands.

In June, 1813, Sir Thomas Hardy, with a small squadron, blockaded the harbor of New London. It continued full twenty months, and was raised only by the proc-

NEW LONDON IN 1813.

lamation of peace early in 1815. The more aged inhabitants, who remembered Arnold's incendiary visit in 1781, apprehended a repetition of the tragedies of that terrible day; but Sir Thomas was a humane man, and never permitted any unnecessary execution of the atrocious orders of his superiors to ravage the New England coasts. His successor, Admiral Hotham, was like him; and so much was the latter respected, that, when peace came and the village of New London was illuminated and a ball held in the court-house, the admiral came on shore from his ship *Superb*, mingled freely with the people, and had a sort of public reception at the ball. Several other British officers were present, and the guests were received by Commodore Decatur, whose vessels had been blockaded in the Thames.

New Madrid, SIEGE OF. New Madrid, on the Missouri side of the Mississippi, and Island Number Ten, about 10 miles above it, almost 1,000 miles above New Orleans by the river channel, constituted the key to the navigation of the lower Mississippi, in the early part of the Civil War, and consequently were of great importance to the large commercial city towards its mouth. To this place Confederate General Polk transferred what he could of munitions of war when he evacuated Columbus. Gen. Jeff. M. Thompson was in command at Fort Madrid of a considerable force and a strong fortification called Fort Thompson. When the garrison there was reinforced from Columbus, it was put under the command of General McCown. Against this post General Halleck despatched Gen. John Pope and a considerable body of troops, chiefly from Ohio and Illinois. He departed from St. Louis (Feb. 22, 1862) on transports, and landed first at Commerce, Mo., and marched thence to New Madrid, encountering a small force under General Thompson on the way, and capturing from him three pieces of artillery. He reached the vicinity of New Madrid on March 3, found the post strongly garrisoned, and a flotilla under CAPT. GEORGE N. HOLLINS (*q. v.*) in the river. He encamped out of reach of the great guns, and

sent to Cairo for heavy cannon. When these arrived there were 9,000 infantry, besides artillery, within the works at New Madrid, and three gunboats added to the flotilla. On the morning after the arrival of his four siege-guns Pope had them in position, and opened fire on the works and the flotilla. These were vigorously replied to, and a fierce artillery duel was kept up throughout the day, the Nationals at the same time extending their trenches so as to reach the river-bank that night. At the same time General Paine was assailing the Confederates on their right flank. Their pickets were driven in, and that night the Confederate forces at New Madrid, on land and water, were in a perilous position. Their commanders perceived this, and at about midnight, during a furious thunder-storm, they stealthily evacuated the post and fled to Island Number Ten, leaving everything behind them. Their suppers and lighted candles were in their tents. The original inhabitants had also fled, and the houses had evidently been plundered by the Confederate occupants. The loss of the Confederates in this siege is not known; that of the Nationals was fifty-one killed and wounded.

New Mexico, TERRITORY OF, was among the earlier of the interior portions of North America visited by the Spaniards. Those adventurous spirits explored portions of it about 100 years before the Pilgrims landed on the shores of New England. CABEZA DE VACA (*q. v.*) with the remnant of Narvaez's expedition, penetrated New Mexico before 1537, and made a report of the country to the viceroy of Mexico. In 1539 Marco de Niça visited the country, and so did CORONADO (*q. v.*) the next year, and a glowing account of it was given by Castaneda, the historian of the expedition. Others followed, and about 1581 Augustin Ruyz, a Franciscan missionary, entered the country and was killed by the natives. Don Antonio Espejo, with a force, went there soon afterwards (1595–99) to protect missions, and the viceroy of Mexico sent his representative to take formal possession of the country in the name of Spain, and to establish missions, settlements, and forts there. The pueblo, or village, Indians were readily made converts by the missionaries. Many successful stations were established, and mines were opened and worked, but the enslavement of the Indians by the Spaniards caused discontent and insecurity. Finally the Indians drove out their oppressors (1680), and recovered the whole country as far south as El Paso del Norte. The Spaniards regained possession of the country in 1698, and the province remained a part of Mexico until 1846, when its capital (Santa Fé) was captured by United States troops under GEN. STEPHEN W. KEARNY (*q. v.*), who soon conquered the whole territory. In 1848 New Mexico

A VIEW OF SANTA FÉ.

was ceded to the United States by treaty; and by act of Congress, Sept. 9, 1850, a territorial government was organized there. The region south of the Gila was obtained by purchase in 1853, and was annexed to New Mexico by Congress, Aug. 4, 1854. The territory then contained the whole of Arizona and a portion of Colorado and Nevada. Attempts have been made to create New Mexico a State, but without success. Its capital is Santa Fé on the Santa Fé River, about 20 miles above its confluence with the Rio Grande, population in 1890, 153,593, in 1900, 195,310.

Secretary Floyd sent Colonel Loring, of North Carolina, and Colonel Crittenden, of Kentucky, into New Mexico, about a year before the Civil War broke out, to influence the patriotism of the 1,200 United States troops stationed there. They did not succeed; and, exciting the indignation of these troops by their propositions, they were compelled to flee from their wrath in July, 1861. At Fort Fillmore, near the Texas border, they found the officers in sympathy with them. Maj. Isaac Lynde, of Vermont, their commander, professed to be loyal, but in July, while leading about 500 of his troops towards the village of Mesilla, he fell in with a few Texan Confederates, and, after a light skirmish, fell back to the fort. He was ordered by his superiors to take his command to Albuquerque. His soldiers were allowed to drink whiskey freely on the way, and when they had gone 10 miles on the road a large portion of them were intoxicated. Then, as if by previous arrangement, a large force of Texans appeared. The sober soldiers wanted to fight, but Lynde, either treacherously or through cowardice, ordered them to surrender. His commissary, Captain Plummer, handed over to the leader of the Confederates $17,000 in government drafts. Thus, at one sweep, nearly one-half of the government troops of New Mexico were lost to its service.

Late in 1861, Gen. Edward R. S. Canby (*q. v.*) was appointed to the command of the military department of New Mexico. Civil war was then kindling in that region. Around him the loyal people of the Territory gathered; and his regular troops, New Mexican levies, and volunteers gave him sufficient force to meet any Confederates which might be sent against him. He fought them at Valverde, and was discomfited; but there were soon such accessions to his ranks that he drove the Confederates over the mountains into Texas. See Cabeza de Vaca *(The Journey through New Mexico)*; United States, New Mexico, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS.

[A list of the governors ruling in New Mexico previous to 1846, with notes, may be found in *Historical Sketches of New Mexico*, by L. Bradford Prince. A list of names only, in *The Annual Statistician and Economist*, L. P. McCarty, 1889, and elsewhere.]

MILITARY GOVERNORS.

Gen. Stephen W. Kearny..	assumes office	Aug. 22,	1846
Charles Bent.....	appointed	Sept. 22,	"
Donaciano Vigil.....	acting	Jan. 19,	1847
Lieut.-Col. J. M. Washington	appointed	.....	1848
Maj. John Munroe.....	"	.....	1849

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

James S. Calhoun.....	assumes office	March 3,	1851
Col. E. V. Sumner.....	acting	.....	1852
John Greiner.....	"	.....	"
William Carr Lane.....	appointed	.....	"
William S. Messervy.....	acting 4 months	.....	1853
David Meriwether.....	appointed	.....	"
W. H. H. Davis.....	acting	.....	1857
Abraham Rencher.....	appointed	.....	"
Henry Connelly.....	"	.....	1861
W. F. M. Arny.....	acting	.....	1865
Robert B. Mitchell.....	appointed	.....	1866
William A. Pile.....	"	.....	1869
Marsh Giddings.....	"	.....	1871
William G. Ritch.....	acting	.....	1875
Samuel B. Axtell..	appointed	.....	"
Lewis Wallace.....	"	.....	1878
Lionel A. Sheldon.....	"	.....	1881
Edmund G. Ross.....	"	.....	1885
L. Bradford Prince	"	.....	1889
William T. Thornton.....	"	.....	1893
Miguel A. Otero.....	"	.....	1897
Herbert J. Hagerman.....	"	.....	1906

New Netherland. To the Binnenhof, at The Hague, repaired deputies from the Amsterdam company of merchants and traders to have an audience with the States-General of Holland, to solicit a

SEAL OF NEW NETHERLAND.

charter for the region in America which the discoveries of Henry Hudson had revealed to the world. That was in 1614. They sent twelve "high and mighty lords," among them the noble John of Barneveld. The deputies spread a map before them, told them of the adventures of their agents in the region of the Hudson River, the heavy expenses they had incurred, and the risks they ran without some legal power to act in defence. Their prayer was heard,

STATE-HOUSE IN NEW YORK.

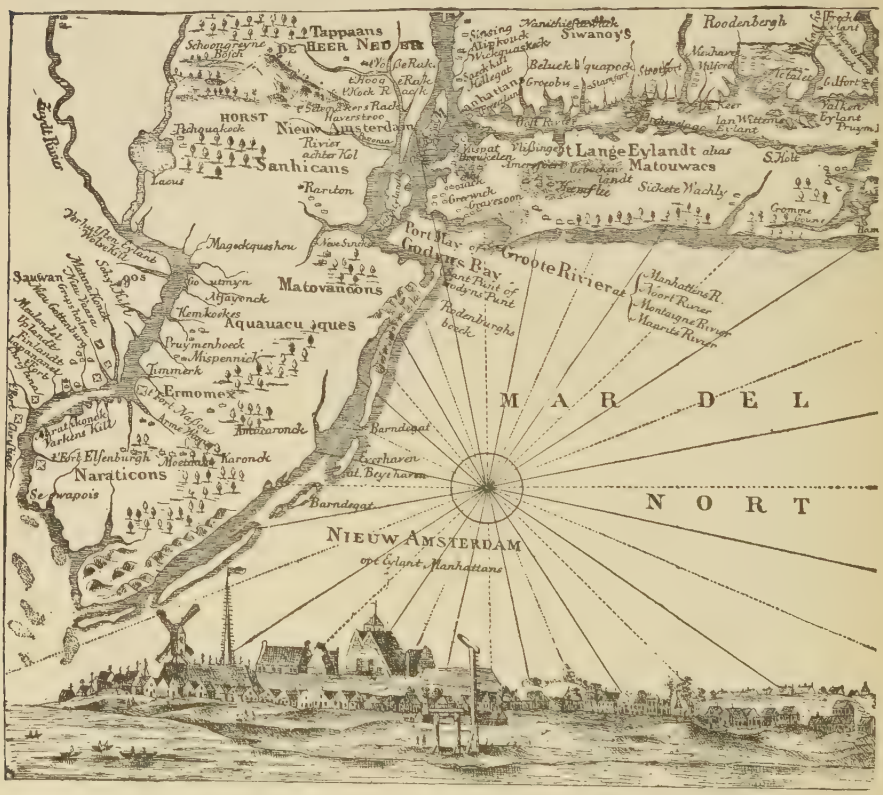
and a charter, bearing date Oct. 11, 1614, was granted, in which the country was named New Netherland. This was before the incorporation of the Dutch West India Company. In 1623, New Netherland was made a province or county of Holland, and the States-General granted it the armorial distinction of a count. The seal of New Netherland bore as a device a shield with the figure of a beaver in the centre of it, surmounted by the coronet of a count, and encircled by the words, "Sigillum Novi Belgii."

While Wouter Van Twiller was governor of New Netherland, Jacob Eelkins, the Dutch West India Company's former commandant at Fort Orange, entered the mouth of the Hudson in an English vessel (April 18, 1633), and avowed his determination to ascend the river and trade with the Indians. He was in the English service, and claimed that the country belonged to the English, because it had been discovered by a subject of England, Hudson. Van Twiller ordered the Orange flag to be raised over Fort Amsterdam as the best defiance of the intruder. Eelkins as promptly ran up the English flag above his vessel (the *William*), weighed anchor, and sailed up the river. This audacity enraged Van Twiller. He gathered the people, opened a barrel of wine, drank glassful after glassful, and cried, "You who love the Prince of Orange and me do this, and assist me in repelling the insult committed by that Englishman." Having thus unburdened his soul, the governor retired within the fort. Later in the day the energetic De Vries dined with the governor, and reproved him for his show of impotence. After a few days of hesitation, some small craft with some soldiers were sent after Eelkins, and after the lapse of about a month the *William* was expelled from the harbor.

The Dutch early took measures to encourage emigration to New Netherland. By a new "Charter of Privileges and Exemptions," adopted July 17, 1640, patroonships were limited, for the future, to 4 miles of frontage on navigable waters, with a depth of 8 miles; and every person transporting himself and five others to the colony was allowed 200 acres of land; and such villages and towns as might be

formed were to have magistrates of their own choosing. A proclamation was issued offering free-trade to New Netherland (in the ships of the West India Company) and transportation thither to all who wished to go; and emigrants were offered lands, houses, cattle, and farming tools at a very moderate annual rent, and a supply of clothes and provisions on credit. At that time, of the ten large patroonships originally established, only Rensselaerswick remained. Immigrants, composed chiefly of persecuted persons or indentured servants who had served out their time, flocked into New Netherland, where they might enjoy freedom such as existed in Holland. They came from New England and Virginia, and very soon there was a considerable English element in society in New Netherland.

The first address of the people of New Netherland to the authorities in Holland was in October and November, 1643. The savage conduct of Gov. WILLIAM KIEFT (*q. v.*) towards the surrounding Indians had brought the Dutch colony into great distress because of the hostilities of the barbarians. Kieft, in the extremity of perplexity, had called the people together to consult upon the crisis, and begged them to choose a new popular council. They chose eight energetic citizens, who seized the reins of government and prepared for defence. On Oct. 24 they addressed to the College of XIX. at Amsterdam, and on Nov. 3, to the States-General, statements of the sad condition of the colony caused by Kieft's bad conduct. Two letters were also sent directly by citizens of New Amsterdam, written in simple but eloquent language. In these letters the Eight Men drew a pitiable pict-



MAP OF NEW NETHERLAND, WITH A VIEW OF NEW AMSTERDAM (NOW NEW YORK), A.D. 1656.

ure of their sufferings—women and children starving; their homes destroyed; the people skulking around the fort at Manhattan, where they were "not one hour safe." They prayed for assistance to save them from "the cruel heathens." The winter that followed was a terrible one in New Netherland. A second appeal from the Council of Eight Men at Manhattan to the College of XIX., in October, 1644, reached that body while it was considering the first address. The second gave a bolder and more definite statement of the grievances of the colonists, and more specific charges against the governor, to whose acts all their troubles were attributed. They asked for his recall. The States-General had already peremptorily ordered the West Indian Company to take measures to relieve the people, but the corporation was bankrupt and powerless. The immediate purpose of the Eight Men was gained, for Kieft was ordered to Holland, and Lubbertus Van Dincklagen, the former sheriff, was appointed provisional governor, until the commission of Peter Stuyvesant was issued in May, 1645.

Uncas, the Mohegan sachem, always bent on mischief, spread a report, in the spring of 1653, that Ninegret, a Niantic sachem, uncle of Miantonomoh, had visited New Amsterdam during the preceding winter, and had arranged with the Dutch governor (Stuyvesant) a plot for a general insurrection of the natives and the murder of the New England settlers. The story caused such alarm (England had just declared war against Holland) that the commissioners of the New England confederacy assembled in special session at Boston in May. They sent messengers to Ninegret and Pessacus to inquire into the matter, and envoys and a letter to Governor Stuyvesant. They also ordered 500 men to be raised, to be ready in case "God called the colonists to war." The sachems totally denied any knowledge of such a plot, and Stuyvesant indignantly repelled even a suspicion, and sent back a declaration of the grievances of the Dutch. These denials were rebutted by the testimony of English and Indian malcontents in New Amsterdam. On the report of the envoys, the commissioners at Boston determined on war; but the General Court of Massachusetts desired the opinions of the clergy. The latter thought they saw plain evidence of "an execrable plot tending to the destruction of many dear saints of God," but were opposed to going to war. Other ministers urged war, and so did a majority of the commissioners, but the General Court denied the power to make "offensive war" without unanimous consent. Meanwhile Connecticut and New Haven, bent on war, united in a solicitation to Cromwell to fit out an expedition to conquer New Netherland, and the towns of Stamford and Fairfield, on the Dutch frontier, attempted to raise volunteers to make war against the Dutch on their own account. At another meeting (September, 1653) the commissioners, believing they were "called by God to make present war on Ninegret," ordered 250 men to be raised for that purpose. The Massachusetts court again interfered, and prevented war. Cromwell, however, sent three ships and a few troops to attack New Netherland, but before they reached America the war with Holland was over, and the expedition, under John Leverett and Robert Sedgwick, proceeded to capture ACADIA (*q. v.*) from La Tour, who laid claim to it because of a grant made to his father by Sir William Alexander.

Late in August, 1664, a land and naval armament, commanded by Col. Richard Nicolls, anchored in New Utrecht Bay, just inside of the present Coney Island. There Nicolls was joined by Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, several magistrates of that colony, and two leading men from Boston. Governor Stuyvesant was at Fort Orange (Albany) when news of this armament reached him. He hastened back to New Amsterdam, and on Aug. 30, Nicolls sent to the governor a summons to surrender the fort and city. He also sent a proclamation to the citizens, promising perfect security of person and property to all who should quietly submit to English rule. Stuyvesant assembled his council and the magistrates at the fort for consultation. The people, smarting under Stuyvesant's iron rule, panted for English liberty, and were lukewarm, to say the least. The council and magistrates favored submission without resistance. The governor, true to his superiors and his convictions of duty, would not listen to such a proposition,

STUYVESANT TEARING UP THE LETTER DEMANDING THE SURRENDER OF NEW AMSTERDAM.

nor allow the people to see Nicoll's proclamation. Two days afterwards the magistrates explained to the people the situation of affairs. They demanded a sight of the proclamation; it was refused. They were on the verge of open insurrection, when Governor Winthrop, with whom Stuyvesant was on friendly terms, came from Nicolls with a letter demanding a surrender. The two governors met at the gate of the fort. On reading the letter, Stuyvesant promptly refused. He read the letter to his council and the assembled magistrates. "Read it to the people and get their mind," they said. The governor stoutly refused; his council and the magistrates as stoutly insisted that he should do so, when the enraged governor, who had fairly earned the title of "Peter the Headstrong," in a towering passion. tore the letter in pieces. Hearing of this, a large number of the people hastened to the state-house, and sent in a deputation to demand the letter. Stuyvesant stormed

The deputies were inflexible, and a fair copy was made from the pieces and read to the inhabitants. The population of New Amsterdam did not exceed 1,500 souls, and not more than 200 were capable of bearing arms. Nicolls sent another message to the governor, saying, "I shall come for your answer to-morrow with ships and soldiers." Stuyvesant was unmoved. And when men, women, and children, and even his beloved son, Balthazar, entreated him to surrender, that the lives and property of the citizens might be spared, he said, "I had much rather be carried out dead." At length, when magistrates, clergy, and the principal citizens entreated him, the proud soldier consented to capitulate. On Monday morning, Sept. 8 (N. S.), he led his troops from the fort to a ship on which they were embarked for Holland; and an hour afterwards the royal flag of England was floating over Fort Amsterdam, the name of which was changed to Fort James, in honor of the Duke of York. The remainder of New Netherland soon passed into the possession of the English.

Charles II. granted the province of New Netherland to his brother James, Duke of York, without competent authority, and, having the power, the duke took possession by an armed force in 1664, and ruled it by governors appointed by himself. The name of the province was changed to New York. In 1673, the English and Dutch were again at war. A

SURRENDER OF FORT AMSTERDAM.

Dutch squadron, after capturing many English trading vessels returning from Virginia, appeared before New York. The governor, Francis Lovelace, was absent in Connecticut, and Col. John Manning was in command of the renamed Fort James. English despotism had weakened the allegiance of the inhabitants of the city, who were mostly Dutch, and who found that their expectations of enjoying "English liberty" were not gratified. When they demanded of the governor more liberty and less taxation, he had unwisely declared, in a passion, that they should have "liberty for no thought but how to pay their taxes." This was resented; and when the Dutch squadron came (July 30, 1673), nearly all the Hollanders in the city regarded their countrymen as liberators. The city was virtually reconquered when the summons to surrender was made. When Manning beat the drums for volunteers to defend the town, few came, and those not as friends, for they spiked the cannon in front of the state-house. Manning sent a messenger for Lovelace; and when the Dutch ships came up and fired broadsides upon the fort, he returned the fire, and shot the enemy's flag-ship "through and through." Then 600 soldiers landed on the shores of the Hudson above the town, where they were joined by 400 Dutch citizens in arms, who encouraged them to storm the fort. They were marching down Broadway for that purpose, when they were met by a messenger from Manning with a proposition to surrender it if his troops might be allowed to march out with the honors of war. The proposition was accepted. The English garrison marched out and the Dutch troops marched in. The flag of the Dutch republic waved over Fort James, which was now renamed Fort William Hendrick, and the city was called New Orange, both in honor of William, Prince of Orange. The province was again called New Netherland.

For many years there were sharp disputes between New Netherland and its colonial neighbors concerning boundary lines. On Sept. 19, 1650, Governor Stuyvesant arrived at Hartford, and demanded of the commissioner of the Connecticut colony a full surrender of the lands on the Connecticut River. After a consultation for several days, it was agreed to leave the matter to arbitrators. The commissioner chose Simon Bradstreet, of Massachusetts, and Thomas Prince, of Plymouth; Stuyvesant chose Thomas Willett and George Baxter, both Englishmen. It was agreed that on Long Island a line should be drawn from the westernmost part of Oyster Bay straight to the sea; the easterly part to belong to the English, the remainder to the Dutch. On the mainland a line should begin at the west side of Greenwich Bay, about 4 miles from Stamford, and run northerly 20 miles; and beyond that distance, as it should be agreed by the two governments of the Dutch and New Haven, provided that line should not come within 10 miles of the Hudson River. It was also agreed that the Dutch should not build a house within 6 miles of the dividing line. In 1659 a deputation arrived at New Amsterdam from Maryland to present the claim of Lord Baltimore to the whole territory of the South River, or Delaware, to lat. 40° N. The Dutch resorted to negotiation instead of a hopeless open resistance by arms, though the courageous Stuyvesant was disposed to do so. After much discussion the Baltimore patent was shown to the commissioners, in which was a clause limiting the proprietor's grant to lands hitherto uncultivated and inhabited only by Indians. The Dutch commissioners rested their case on this clause. They argued that the South River region was distinctly excluded from Lord Baltimore's patent by its own terms, inasmuch as when the grant was made that country had been purchased of the Indians by the Dutch some time before. The argument was unanswerable. Here the controversy about jurisdiction ceased but the matter was never adjusted between the Dutch and English.

On the surrender of New Netherland to the English (1664) and the change of its name to New York, the commissioners to whom the conquest of the Dutch province and the settlement of troubles in New England had been intrusted, proceeded to define the boundary between the colonies of New York and Connecticut. It was decided that the boundary should be 20 miles east of the Hudson

River and run parallel to it. It was determined that the line should run N.N.W. from tide-water on the Mamaroneck to the southern limits of Massachusetts; but it was found that this line would cross the Hudson in the Highlands and not run parallel with it—certainly not 20 miles east of it. The commissioners reversed their decision, and the controversy was renewed. In 1683 another boundary commission was appointed. It was finally agreed to allow New York the whole of Long Island and all the islands in the Sound to within a few rods of the Connecticut shore, and Connecticut to extend her boundaries west along the Sound to a point within about 15 miles of the Hudson, the strip extending an average of about 8 miles north of the Sound; New York to receive a compensation in the north by the surrender of a narrow tract of 61,440 acres, called "The Oblong," by Connecticut. The lines were established in 1731; but the exact line remaining a subject of dispute, commissioners were appointed in 1856 to fix it, but they failed to agree.

PETERSFIELD, THE RESIDENCE OF GOVERNOR STUYVESANT.

In 1683, when Thomas Dongan was made governor, the people asked for more political privileges, and the duke instructed him to call a representative assembly. It met in the fort at New York on Oct. 17, 1683, and sat three weeks, passing fourteen acts, all of which were approved by the governor. The first act was entitled "The Charter of Liberties and Franchises granted by his Royal Highness to the Inhabitants of New York and its Dependencies." The duke approved the act. It declared that supreme legislative power should forever be and reside in the governor, council, and people, met in General Assembly; that every freeholder and freeman should be allowed to vote for representatives without restraint; that no freeman should suffer but by judgment of his peers; that all trials should be by a jury of twelve men; that no tax should be assessed, on any pretence whatever, but by the consent of the Assembly; that no seaman or soldier should be quartered on the inhabitants against their will; that no martial law should exist; and that no person possessing faith in God by Jesus Christ should at any time be anywise disquieted or questioned for any difference of opinion. Two years afterwards the duke succeeded to the throne as James II., when he at once struck a severe blow at this fabric of liberty. James as king broke the promises of James as duke. He had become an avowed Roman Catholic, and determined to fill all offices in his realm with men of that creed. He levied direct taxes on New York without the consent of the people, forbade the introduction of printing, and otherwise established tyranny (see DONGAN, THOMAS). He refused to confirm the charter of 1683, but he dared not attempt to suppress the General Assembly, the first truly representative government established in New York. See NEW YORK; NEW YORK, STATE OF.

New Orleans. Governor Bienville prepared to found a town on the lower Mississippi in 1718, and sent a party of convicts to clear up a swamp on the site of the present city of New Orleans. When Charlevoix visited the spot in 1722, the germ of the city consisted of a large wooden warehouse, a shed for a church, two or three ordinary houses, and a quantity of huts built without order. But Bienville believed that it would one day become, "perhaps, too, at no distant day, an opulent city, the metropolis of a great and rich colony," and removed the seat of government from Biloxi to New Orleans. Law's settlers in Arkansas (see LAW, JOHN), finding themselves abandoned, went down to New Orleans and received allotments on both sides of the river, settled on cottage farms, and raised vegetables for the supply of the town and soldiers. Thus the rich tract near New Orleans became known as the "German Coast."

After Spain had acquired possession of Louisiana by treaty with France (1763), the Spanish cabinet determined that Louisiana must be retained as a part of the Spanish dominions, and as a granary for

NEW ORLEANS IN 1719.

Havana and Porto Rico. It was also determined that Louisiana as a republic would soon rival Spain in wealth and property; be independent of European powers; contrast strongly with other Spanish provinces; cause the inhabitants of the vast Mexican domain to consider their total want of commerce, the extortions of their governors, and the few offices they were permitted to fill; and thus still more hatred of Spanish rule would be engendered and the Mexicans encouraged to throw it off. In view of the apparent danger of trouble with, if not absolute loss of, her colonies by Spain, the minister (D'Aranda) advised the King to reduce the colony of Louisiana from its attitude of independence to submission. The King accepted the advice, and, with foolish pride, said, "The world must see that I, unaided, can crush the audacity of sedition." He despatched an officer (Alexander O'Reilly) in great haste to Cuba, with orders to extirpate republicanism at New Orleans. At the close of July, 1769, O'Reilly appeared at the Balize with a strong force. With pretensions of friendship, promises that the people of New Orleans would not be harmed were made and received with faith. On Aug. 8 the Spanish squadron, of twenty-four vessels, bearing 3,000 troops, anchored in front of New Orleans, and the place was taken possession of in the name of the Spanish monarch. With feigned kindness of intentions, the treacherous O'Reilly invited the people's representatives and many of the leading inhabitants to his house (Aug. 21), and the former were invited to pass into his private apartments, where they were arrested. "You are charged with being the chiefs of this revolt," said O'Reilly; "I arrest you in the name of his Catholic Majesty." Provisional decrees settled the government, and on the 26th the inhabitants were compelled to take the oath of allegiance to the King of Spain. Twelve of the representatives were selected as victims. They were among the richest and most influential citizens of Louisiana. Their estates were confiscated for the benefit of the officers who tried them. Six of them were sentenced for six or ten years, or for life, and five of them — Lafrenière, his

young son-in-law Noyan, Caresse, Marquis, and Joseph Milhet — were sentenced to be hanged, but, for want of such an executioner, were shot on Oct. 25, 1769. Villeré, one of the twelve, did not survive the day of his arrest, and his name was declared infamous. "The insult done to the King's dignity and authority in the province is repaired," reported O'Reilly; "the example now given can never be effaced." So perished the first republic established in America.

In the War of 1812–15.—In 1814, when the British had captured the American flotilla on Lake Borgne, there seemed to be no obstacle to the seizure of the city of New Orleans. Troops for its defence were few, and arms fewer still. Some months before, Jackson had called for a supply of arms for the Southwest from the arsenal at Pittsburg, but from an unwillingness to pay the freight demanded by the only steamboat then navigating the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, these means of defence had been shipped in keel-boats, and did not arrive until after the fate of the city had been decided. Jackson put forth amazing energy. He called for Tennessee and Kentucky volunteers, and urged the legislature of Louisiana to work energetically with him. That body seemed unwilling or unable to comprehend the gravity of the situation, while the governor (Claiborne) was all alive with patriotic zeal. Even the muskets on hand in the city would have been useless but for a timely supply of flints furnished by JEAN LAFITTE (*q. v.*), the Baratarian pirate. The legislature passed an act suspending for four months the payment of all bills and notes; but they hesitated to suspend the *habeas corpus* act; when Jackson, under whose command Governor Claiborne had placed himself, took the responsibility of declaring martial law, and also took such energetic measures, in defiance of the legislature, that the city was saved from capture and pillage. This act gave great offence to the civil power (see JACKSON, ANDREW). A rumor was set afloat that Jackson, rather than surrender the city to the British, intended to lay it in ashes and retire up the river. This rumor caused movements on the part of the legislature and some of the leading citizens that made Jackson believe that body might intend, to save the city, to offer a premature capitulation. Jackson directed Claiborne, in such a case, to arrest the members of the legislature. The governor misinterpreted the order, and, without waiting

CHALMETTE'S PLANTATION.

to know whether suspicions of its intentions were well founded, he placed a military guard at the door of the legislative hall and broke up the session.

REMAINS OF RODRIGUEZ'S CANAL IN 1861.

Jackson's Victory in 1814–15.—The battle at Villeré's plantation (Dec. 23, 1814) dispirited the British invaders, and in this condition Lieut.-Gen. Edward Pakenham, the "hero of Salamanca," and one of Wellington's veteran officers, found them on his arrival on Christmas Day, with reinforcements, to take chief command. He was delighted to find under his command some of the best of Wellington's troops that fought on the Spanish Peninsula. He immediately prepared to effect the capture of New Orleans and the subjugation of Louisiana without delay. While Jackson was casting up intrenchments along the line of Rodriguez's Canal, from the Mississippi back to an impassable swamp 2 miles away, the British were as busy too. They worked day and night in the erection of a heavy battery that should command the armed schooner *Carolina*, and on the morning of Dec. 27 they opened a heavy fire upon her from several 12 and 18 pounders. They also hurled shot at her, which set her on fire, when her crew abandoned her, and she blew up. The schooner *Louisiana*, Lieutenant Thompson, had come down from the city to aid her, and was in great peril. She was the only armed vessel belonging to the Americans in the vicinity of New Orleans. By great exertions she was placed at a safe distance from the fire of the British. Pakenham now issued orders for his whole army, 8,000 strong, to move forward and storm the American intrenchments. It was arranged in two columns—one commanded by General Keane; the other by General Gibbs, a good soldier, who came with Pakenham, and was his second in command. Towards evening (Dec. 27) they moved forward, and encamped on the plantations of Bienvenu and Chalmette, within a few hundred yards of Jackson's intrenchments. Then they began the construction of batteries near the river, but were continually annoyed by Hinds's troopers and other active Americans by quick and sharp attacks on their flank and rear.

Jackson was aware of the arrival of Pakenham, and expected vigorous warfare from him. He prepared accordingly. His headquarters were at the château of M. Macarté, a wealthy creole, from the balcony of which, with his field-glass, he could survey the whole of the operations of his own and the British army. From that mansion he sent numerous and important orders on that night. He had caused Chalmette's buildings to be blown up on the approach of the invaders, that the sweep of his own artillery might not be impeded, and he had called to the line some Louisiana militia from the rear. He had also planted some heavy guns, and

before the dawn of the 28th he had 4,000 men and twenty pieces of artillery to receive Pakenham, while the *Louisiana* was prepared to greet him with her heavy cannon. As soon as a light fog had disappeared on the morning of the 28th, the British approached in two columns. Just then a band of rough men—Baratarians—came down from the city, and were placed by Jackson in command of one of the 24-pounders. As a solid column under General Keane drew near, they were met by a terrible fire of musketry, but they bravely advanced until checked by the sudden opening of Jackson's heavy guns and the batteries of the *Louisiana*. At the same time the British rocketeers were busy, but they did very little damage. Keane's troops endured the tempest that was thinning their ranks for a while, when they fell back, running pell-mell to the shelter of the canal, where they stood waist-deep in mud and water. Their batteries were half destroyed and abandoned, and the shattered column was thoroughly repulsed and demoralized.

Meanwhile, the other column, under Gibbs, was actively engaged on the British right. They were pressing General Carroll and his Tennesseeans near the swamp very severely, when Gibbs, seeing the heavy pressure on Keane's column, ordered his troops to their assistance. When it gave way, Pakenham ordered a general retreat, and he retired to his headquarters at Villeré's, deeply mortified at this repulse by a handful of backwoodsmen, as he regarded Jackson's army. In this engagement, preliminary to the great battle which soon afterwards ensued, the Americans lost nine killed and eight wounded. The British lost about 150. Pakenham called a council of war, when it was resolved to bring forward heavy siege-guns from the fleet before making another attempt to carry Jackson's lines, for the experience of the 28th had given Pakenham a test of the temper of his opponents. At the same time Jackson was busy in strengthening his position at Rodriguez's Canal, over which not a British soldier had yet passed, excepting as a prisoner. He placed two 12-pounders in battery on his left, near the swamp, in charge of Gen. Garrigue Flauzac, a French volunteer, and also a 6 and an 18 pounder under Colonel Perry. His intrenchments were extended into the swamp to prevent a flank movement. On the opposite side of the Mississippi there was a similar structure; and Commander Patterson, pleased with the effects of the guns of the *Louisiana* from the same side, established a battery back of the levee, which he armed with heavy guns from the schooner. This battery commanded the front of Jackson's lines by an enfilading fire, and soon compelled the British to fall back from Chalmette's. The Tennessee riflemen were conspicuously active in annoying the British sentinels by "hunts," as they called little expeditions.

MACARTÉ'S, JACKSON'S HEADQUARTERS.

The British contented themselves with casting up a strong redoubt near the swamp, from which they opened a vigorous fire on Jackson's left (Dec. 31). That night the whole British army moved forward to within a few hundred yards of the American lines, and began throwing up intrenchments on which to place heavy siege-guns, which had arrived. By daylight they had erected three half-moon batteries within 600 yards of the American breastworks, right, centre, and left. Upon these they had mounted thirty pieces of heavy ordnance, manned by picked gunners from the fleet. The works were hidden by a thick fog on the morning of Jan. 1 (1815). When it lifted, the British opened a brisk fire, not doubting that in a few minutes the contemptible defences of the Americans would be scattered to the winds. The army was arrayed in battle order to rush forward and capture the works and their defenders. Every moment the cannonade and bombardment became heavier, and the rocketeers sent showers of fiery missiles upon the Americans. Meanwhile, Jackson had opened his heavy guns on his assailants. His cannonade was led off by the imperturbable Humphrey on the left, followed by the Baratarians and the veteran Garrigue. The American artillery thundered all along the line.

Pakenham was amazed. He could not conceive where the Americans got their guns and gunners. The conflict became terrible. Patterson fought the batteries on the levee from the opposite side of the river; and an attempt to turn the American left at the swamp was successfully met by Coffee and his riflemen, and the assailants made to fly in terror. Towards noon the fire of the British slackened. Their half-moon batteries were crushed, the batteries on the levee were demolished, and the invaders ran helter-skelter to the ditch for protection. Under cover of the ensuing night, they crawled back to their camp, dragging with them a part of their cannon over the oozy ground. It was a bitter New Year's Day for the British army. They had been without food or sleep for sixty hours. There was joy in the American camp. It was increased when Gen. John Adair announced that more than 2,000 drafted men from Kentucky, under Maj.-Gen. John Thomas, were near. They arrived at New Orleans on the morning of the 4th, and 700 of them were sent to the front under Adair.

VILLERÉ'S MANSION.

Pakenham now conceived the hazardous plan of carrying Jackson's lines by storm on both sides of the river. Those on the right bank were under the command of General Morgan.

Jackson penetrated Pakenham's design on the 6th, and he disposed his forces accordingly. The New Orleans troops and a few others were placed on the right of the intrenchments, and fully two-thirds of the whole line was covered by the commands of Coffee and Carroll. The latter was reinforced on the 7th by 1,000 Kentuckians, under General Adair, and fifty marines. Coffee, with 500 men, held the extreme left of the line, where his men were compelled to sleep on floating logs lashed to the trees. Jackson's whole force on the New Orleans side of the river was about 5,000 in number. Of these only 2,200 were at the line, and only 800 of them were regulars, the rest mostly raw recruits commanded by young officers. His army was formed in two divisions—one, on the right, commanded by Colonel Ross; and the other, on the left, by Generals Carroll and Coffee. Another intrenchment had been thrown up a mile and a half in the rear of the front, behind which the weaker of his forces were stationed. Jackson also established a third line at the lower edge of the city.

General Morgan, on the opposite side of the river, had 800 men, all militia and indifferently armed. On the night of the 7th, Pakenham sent Lieutenant-Colonel Thornton with a detachment to attack Morgan, and at dawn the British, under Pakenham, were seen advancing to attack Jackson's lines. The heavy guns of one of Jackson's batteries were opened upon it, and so a terrible battle was begun. The British line, stretching across the plain of Chalmette, was broken into companies, but steadily advanced, terribly smitten by a storm that came from the American batteries, which made fearful lanes through their ranks with round and grape shot. The right of the British, under Gibbs, had obliqued towards the swamp, and was thrown into some confusion by the guns of the Americans. This was heightened by the fact that there had been neglect in bringing forward fascines and scaling-ladders. His troops poured forward in solid column, covered in front by blazing rockets. Whole platoons were prostrated, when others instantly filled their places; and so, without pause or recoil, they pushed towards the weaker left of Jackson's line. By this time all the American batteries, including Patterson's across the river, were in full play.

Yet steadily on marched Wellington's veterans, stepping firmly over the dead bodies of slain comrades, until they had reached a point within 200 yards of the American line, behind which, concealed from the view of the invaders, lay the Tennessee and Kentucky sharp-shooters, four ranks deep. Suddenly the clear voice of General Carroll rang out the word, "Fire!" His Tennesseeans instantly arose, and, taking sure aim, laid scores of the British soldiery on the ground by a terrific storm of bullets. That storm did not cease for a moment, for when the Tennesseeans had fired they fell back, and the Kentuckians took their places, and so the four ranks in turn participated in the conflict. At the same time, round, grape, and chain shot went crashing through the British line from the several batteries, and it began to waver, when a detachment brought up the fascines and scaling-ladders, and revived the hopes of the British. Pakenham was at the head of his troops. Addressing a few stirring words to the men he was leading forward, his bridle-arm was made powerless by a bullet, and his horse was shot dead under him. He instantly mounted another. Several of his officers fell one after another, and the line broke up into detachments, a greater part of them falling back to the shelter of the protecting swamp. They were rallied, and rushed forward to carry the works in front of Carroll and Coffee.

At that moment, Keane, on the left, wheeled his column and pushed to the aid of the right, terribly enfiladed by the American batteries as they strode across the plain. Their presence encouraged the broken column on the right, and all rushed into the heart of the tempest from Carroll's rifles, Gibbs on the right and Pakenham on their left. In a few minutes the right arm of the latter was disabled by a bullet. Very soon, while shouting huzzas to his troops, there came a terrible storm of round and grape shot that scattered dead men all around him.

One of the balls passed through the general's thigh, killing his horse under him. Pakenham was caught in the arms of his faithful aid, Captain McDougall. He was conveyed to the rear in a dying condition, and expired in the arms of McDougall under a live-oak-tree. General Gibbs was also mortally wounded, and died the next day. Keane, shot in the neck, was compelled to leave the field, and the command devolved on Major Wilkinson, the officer of highest grade in the saddle. His discomfited troops fell back, and the whole army fled in disorder.

While these events were occurring on the right, nearly 1,000 men under the active Colonel Rennie had pushed rapidly forward near the river in two columns, and, driving in the American pickets, took possession of the unfinished redoubt on Jackson's extreme right. They did not hold it long. Patterson's battery greatly annoyed Rennie's column on its march. As he scaled the parapet of the redoubt, and had just exclaimed, "Hurrah, boys, the day is ours!" he fell dead, pierced by a bullet from Beale's rifles. When this column fell back in disorder, General Lambert, in command of the reserves, appeared just in time to cover the retreat of the battered and flying regiments, but not to retrieve the misfortunes of the day. From the first flight of British rockets in the morning to the close of the battle, the New Orleans Band, stationed near the centre of the American line, played incessantly, cheering the troops with martial music. No music but the bugle inspired the British columns. Across the Mississippi, Thornton had captured the American intrenchments after the cannon had been spiked and rolled into the river; also Patterson's battery, the commander and his men, after spiking the guns, escaping on board the *Louisiana*. Then Thornton recrossed the river and joined the retiring army.

In this terrible battle the British lost 2,600 men, killed, wounded, and made prisoners; while the Americans, sheltered by their breastworks, lost only eight killed and thirteen wounded. The history of human warfare presents no parallel to this disparity in loss. On the western side of the river the British had 100 killed and wounded; the Americans six. The next morning (Jan. 9, 1815) detachments from both armies were engaged in burying the dead on the plain. The Kentuckians carried to the British detachment the bodies of their slain comrades on the scaling-ladders they had brought. The bodies of the dead British officers were buried on Villeré's plantation, not far from his mansion, and those of Pakenham and several others were placed in casks of rum and sent to England. On Jan. 18 a general exchange of prisoners took place, and under cover of the next night General Lambert withdrew all the British from the Mississippi, and they soon made their way in open boats across Lake Borgne to their fleet, 60 miles distant, between Cat and Ship islands. Louisiana was saved. The news of the victory created intense joy throughout the country. State legislatures and other bodies thanked Jackson and his brave men. A small medal was struck in commemoration of the event and circulated among the people. Congress voted the thanks of the nation to Jackson, and ordered a commemorative gold medal to be given to him.

In the Civil War.—The national government resolved during the winter of 1861–62 to repossess itself of Mobile, New Orleans, Baton Rouge, and Galveston, and to attempt to acquire control of the lower Mississippi and Texas. The Department of the Gulf was created, which included all these points, and Gen. Benjamin F. Butler (*q. v.*) was placed in command of it. It was proposed to send a competent land and naval force first to capture New Orleans. General McClellan did not think the plan feasible, for it would take 50,000 men, and he was unwilling to spare a man from his army of more than 200,000 men lying around Washington. President Lincoln approved of the project, and Mr. Stanton said to General Butler, "The man who takes New Orleans shall be made a lieutenant-general." Butler called for troops. New England was alive with enthusiasm, and furnished them, in addition to her thousands in the Army of the Potomac. He sailed from Fort Monroe, Feb. 25, 1862, with his wife, his staff, and 1,400 New England troops. Storms and delays made the passage long, and it was thirty days before he landed on dreary Ship Island (his place of destination), off

the coast of Mississippi, where there was an unfinished fort. The Confederates of that region had taken possession of that island and the fort in considerable force. During their occupation of it for about four months, they made it strong and available for defence. They constructed eleven bomb-proof casemates, a magazine, and barracks, mounted twenty heavy Dahlgren guns, and named it Fort Twiggs.

When a rumor that a strong naval force was approaching reached the island, the Confederate garrison abandoned the fort, burned the barracks, and with their cannon fled to the mainland. On the following day, a small force was landed from the National gunboat *Massachusetts*, and took possession of the place. They strengthened the fort by building two more casemates, adding Dahlgren and rifled cannon, and piling around its outer walls tiers of sand-bags six feet in depth. They gave to the fort the name of their vessel, and it became Fort Massachusetts. When General Butler arrived, there was no house on the island, and it was with much difficulty that a decent place of shelter was prepared for his wife and his military family. General Phelps was there with New England troops, so also were Commodore Farragut with a naval force, and Commodore D. D. Porter (*q. v.*) with a fleet of bomb-vessels to co-operate with the land force. At a short bend in the Mississippi River, 60 miles below New Orleans, were Forts Jackson and St. Philip. These, with some fortifications above and obstructions in the river below, were believed by the Confederates to make the stream absolutely impassable by vessels. There were then 10,000 troops in New Orleans under Gen. Mansfield Lovell. One of the New Orleans journals said, in a boastful manner. "Our only fear is that the Northern invaders may not appear. We have made such extensive preparations to receive them, that it were vexatious if their invincible armada escapes the fate we have in store for it."

On April 28 the fleets of Farragut and Porter were within the Mississippi River, the former in chief command of the naval forces; and General Butler, with about 9,000 troops, was at the Southwest Pass. The fleets comprised forty-seven armed vessels, and these, with the transports, went up the river, Porter's mortar-boats leading. When they approached the forts their hulls were besmeared with mud, and the rigging was covered with branches of trees. So disguised, they were enabled to take a position near the forts unsuspected. The Mississippi was full to the brim, and a boom and other obstructions near Fort Jackson had been swept away by the flood. On April 18 a battle between Fort Jackson and Porter's mortar-boats was begun. The gunboats supported the mortar-boats. They could not much affect the forts, and on the night of the 23d the fleet started to run by them, the mortar-boats helping. The perilous passage of the forts was begun at 2 A.M. The night was intensely dark, and in the gloom a tremendous battle was waged. The National naval force was met by a Confederate one. In that struggle the Nationals were victorious. While the battle was raging near the forts, General Butler landed his troops, and in small boats passed through narrow and shallow bayous in the rear of Fort St. Philip. The alarmed garrison surrendered to Butler without resistance, declaring they had been

THE LEVEE AT NEW ORLEANS.

pressed into the service and would fight no more. When the forts were surrendered and the Confederate gunboats subdued, Farragut rendezvoused at Quarantine, and then with nine vessels went up to New Orleans. There a fearful panic prevailed, for the people had heard of the disasters below. Drums were beating, soldiers were hurrying to and fro, cotton was carried to the levee to be burned; specie to the amount of $4,000,000 had been carried away from the banks, and citizens, with millions of property, had fled from the city. When Farragut approached (April 25), General Lovell and his troops fled; the torch was applied to the cotton on the levee, and 15,000 bales, a dozen large ships, and as many fine steamers, with unfinished gunboats and other large vessels, were destroyed in the conflagration. The citizens were held in durance by Farragut's guns until the arrival of Butler on May 1, when the latter landed with his troops, took formal possession of the defenceless town, and made his headquarters at the St. Charles Hotel. The loss of New Orleans was a terrible blow to the Confederates. See BUTLER, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

New Plymouth. When, in 1627, the term of partnership between the Pilgrims and the London merchants had expired, the latter, numbering not more than 300 at Plymouth, applied to the council of New England for a charter. It was granted July 13, 1630, and in it the boundaries of the colony were defined, on the land side, as composed of two lines—one drawn northerly from the mouth of the Narraganset River, the other westerly from Cohasset rivulet—to meet at "the uttermost limits of a country or place called Pocanoket." A grant on the Kennebec, where some of the Pilgrims had been seated was included in the charter. The patent gave a title to the soil, but the functions of government could only be exercised, according to English legal opinions, under a charter from the crown. Efforts were made to obtain such a charter, but without success. The colonists, however, gradually assumed all the prerogatives of government—even the power of capital punishment. Eight capital offences were enumerated in the first Plymouth code, including treason or rebellion against the colony and "solemn compaction or conversing with the devil." Trial by jury was introduced, but punishments for minor offences remained discretionary. For eighteen years all laws were enacted in a general assembly of all the colonists. The governor, who was simply

OLD COLONY SEAL.

president of a council, was chosen annually. There were finally seven councillors, called assistants; and so little was public office coveted that it was necessary to inflict a fine upon such as, being chosen, declined to serve as governor or assistant. The constitution of the church was equally democratic. For the first eight years there was no pastor. Lyford, a minister, was sent over by the London partners to be a pastor; but they refused, and expelled him. Brewster and others were exhorters; and on Sunday afternoons a question was propounded, to which all present might speak. No minister stayed long at Plymouth after they adopted the plan of having a pastor. See BREWSTER, WILLIAM.

New Smyrna Colony. In 1767 Dr. Trumbull, of Charleston, S. C., went to the place known as New Smyrna, in Florida, with about 1,500 persons—Greeks, Italians, and Minorcans—whom he had persuaded to follow him to better their fortunes. He established them on a tract of 60,000 acres, and began the cultivation of indigo. Trumbull reduced these poor people to slavery, and treated them most cruelly. The English governor of the territory was his partner in the enterprise. He kept the colonists in sub-

jection by troops. This slavery lasted nine years, when, in 1776, the petitions of the people were heard and heeded by a new governor just arrived, and they were released from the tyranny of Trumbull. Nearly two-thirds of the colonists had then perished. Most of the survivors went to St. Augustine, where their descendants constituted a considerable portion of the native population.

New Somerset. The provinces held by Gorges after the division of the New England territory were named New Somerset. He sent out his nephew, William Gorges, as deputy-governor of the domain, which extended from the Piscataqua to the Kennebec. He assumed rule over the fishing hamlets there, and held a general court at Saco. See MAINE; NEW ENGLAND.

New South, THE. See GRADY, HENRY WOODFEN.

New Spain. The first name given to Mexico.

NEW SWEDEN, FOUNDING OF

New Sweden, FOUNDING OF. The following narrative of the founding of New Sweden is from the *History of New Sweden* by the REV. ISRAEL ACRELIUS (*q. v.*), who was provost over the Swedish congregations in America, and pastor of the church in Christiania in 1749–56. A translation of the work with valuable notes, by the Rev. William M. Reynolds, was published in the *Memoirs of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania* in 1874.

After that the magnanimous Genoese, Christopher Columbus, had, at the expense of Ferdinand, King of Spain, in the year 1492, discovered the Western Hemisphere, and the illustrious Florentine, Americus Vespucius, sent out by King Emanuel of Portugal, in the year 1502, to make a further exploration of its coasts, had had the good fortune to give the country his name, the European powers have, from time to time, sought to promote their several interests there. Our Swedes and Goths were the less backward in such expeditions, as they had always been the first therein. They had already, in the year 996 after the birth of Christ, visited America, had named it Vinland the Good, and also Skrællinga Land, and had called its inhabitants "the Skrællings of Vinland." It is therefore evident that the Northmen had visited some part of North America before the Spaniards and Portuguese went to South America. But the question is, What would have been thought about Vinland if no later discoveries had been made, and what they thought about it before the time of Columbus?

Every region in America was discovered in its own separate time. Virginia was discovered in the year 1497 by Sebastian Cabot, a Portuguese, who was then the captain of an English ship. Its coasts were afterwards visited by those brave knights, Sir Francis Drake and Sir Walter Raleigh, the latter of whom called the land Virginia, after Queen Elizabeth of England, who lived unmarried. Under this name was included all the country stretching from Cape Florida to the St. Lawrence River, which was formerly called Florida, when separate names were not yet given to its coasts. That was done about the year 1584. Captain De la Ware, under the command of the English Admiral James Chartiers,* was the first who discovered the bay in which the Indian river Poutaxat debouched, and gave his name, Delaware, to both the river and the bay, in the year 1600. These countries were repeatedly visited by the English: first by those sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh from Bristol, in the year 1603, and afterwards by Sir G. Popham and Captain James Davis, but little more was accomplished than that they learned to know the people, erected some small places and forts, which, however, were soon destroyed by the savages. In the year 1606 a body

* Acrelius has been led into this singular mistake by Campanius, whom he here follows. Cartier (not Chartiers) was a French subject, and discovered the St. Lawrence in 1534. Lord (not "captain") De la Ware was appointed governor of Virginia in 1610, and arrived at Jamestown on June 10 of the same year. He probably entered the Delaware on his way to Virginia. The reader will notice various inaccuracies in these early pages.

of emigrants was sent to the northern regions, by two companies, called the London and the Bristol Companies. The former settled southward on the Chesapeake Bay; the latter, on the Kennebeck, or Sagadahoc, River. Each had its territorial rights secured by a patent. In the year 1620 a dispute arose between them about the fisheries at Cape Cod, when a new patent was given. The Bristol Company, which received an accession of some persons of rank and distinction, changed its name to that of the Plymouth Council, and obtained a right to all the lands lying above the 40th degree up to the 48th degree of north latitude, which was three degrees farther north than the former grant, and included the greater part of Acadia, or New Scotland, and also extend-

KING GUSTAF ADOLPH.

ed westward from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean: all this was included in New England. The rest remained under Virginia.

About the same time the Hollanders undertook to steal into these American harbors. They took a fancy to the shores of the bay called by the Indians Menahados, and the river Mohaan.* Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Holland East India Company, had first discovered those places, and called the bay after his own name, Hudson's Bay. This East India Company, in the year 1608, sold its right to the country, which it based upon its priority of discovery, to some Hollanders. These obtained from the States-General of Holland an exclusive privilege *(privilegium exclusivum)* to the country, and took the name of "The West India Company of Amsterdam." In the year 1610 they began to traffic with the Indians, and in the year 1613 built a trading-post (*magasin*) at the place now called Albany, and in the following year placed some cannon there. Samuel Argall, the governor of Virginia, drove them out in 1618; but King James I. gave them permission to remain, that their ships might obtain water there in their voyages to Brazil. From that time until 1623, when the West India Company obtained its charter, their trade with the Indians was conducted almost entirely on shipboard, and they made no attempts to build any house or fortress until 1629. Now, whether that was done with or without the permission of England, the town of New Amsterdam was built and fortified, as also the place Aurania, Orange, now called Albany, having since had three general-governors, one after the other. But that was not yet enough. They wished to extend their power to the river Delaware also, and erected on its shores two or three small forts, which were, however, soon after destroyed by the natives of the country.

It now came in order for Sweden also to take part in this enterprise. William Usselinx, a Hollander, born at Antwerp in Brabant, presented himself to King Gustaf Adolph, and laid before him a prop-

* Evidently, the Mohawk, although we do not anywhere else find that river so called. The connection would indicate the Hudson River, but that is never so designated, but was called by the natives the Cohatatea or Oïogue.

osition for a trading company, to be established in Sweden, and to extend its operations to Asia, Africa, and Magellan's Land (Terra Magellanica), with the assurance that this would be a great source of revenue to the kingdom. Full power was given him to carry out this important project; and thereupon a contract of trade was drawn up, to which the company was to agree and subscribe it. Usselinx published explanations of this contract, wherein he also particularly directed attention to the country on the Delaware, its fertility, convenience, and all its imaginable resources. To strengthen the matter, a charter (octroy) was secured to the company, and especially to Usselinx, who was to receive a royalty of one thousandth upon all articles bought or sold by the company.

The powerful King, whose zeal for the honor of God was not less ardent than for the welfare of his subjects, availed himself of this opportunity to extend the doctrines of Christ among the heathen, as well as to establish his own power in other parts of the world. To this end, he sent forth letters patent, dated at Stockholm on the 2d of July, 1626, wherein all, both high and low, were invited to contribute something to the company, according to their means. The work was completed in the Diet of the following year, 1627, when the estates of the realm gave their assent, and confirmed the measure. Those who took part in this company were: His Majesty's mother, the Queen Dowager Christina, the Prince John Casimir, the Royal Council, the most distinguished of the nobility, the highest officers of the army, the bishops and other clergymen, together with the burgomasters and aldermen of the cities, as well as a large number of the people generally. The time fixed for paying in the subscriptions was the 1st of May of the following year (1628). For the management and working of the plan there were appointed an admiral, vice-admiral, chapman, underchapman, assistants, and commissaries; also a body of soldiers duly officered.

But when these arrangements were now in full progress, and duly provided for, the German war and the King's death occurred, which caused this important work to be laid aside. The trading company was dissolved, its subscriptions nullified, and the whole project seemed about to die with the King. But, just as it appeared to be at its end, it received new life. Another Hollander, by the name of Peter Menewe, sometimes called Menuet, made his appearance in Sweden. He had been in the service of Holland in America, where he became involved in difficulties with the officers of their West India Company, in consequence of which he was recalled home and dismissed from their service. But he was not discouraged by this, and went over to Sweden, where he renewed the representations which Usselinx had formerly made in regard to the excellence of the country and the advantages that Sweden might derive from it.

Queen Christina, who succeeded her royal father in the government, was glad to have the project thus renewed. The royal chancellor, Count Axel Oxenstierna, understood well how to put it in operation. He took the West India Trading Company into his own hands, as its president, and encouraged other noblemen to take shares in it. King Charles I. of England had already, in the year 1634, upon representations made to him by John Oxenstierna, at that time Swedish ambassador in London, renounced, in favor of the Swedes, all claims and pretensions of the English to that country, growing out of their rights as its first discoverers. Hence everything seemed to be settled upon a firm foundation, and all earnestness was employed in the prosecution of the plans for a colony.

As a good beginning, the first colony was sent off;* and Peter Menewe was placed over it, as being best acquainted in those regions. They set sail from Götheborg, in a ship-of-war called the *Key of Colmar*, followed by a smaller vessel bearing the name of the *Bird Griffin*, both laden with people, provisions, ammunition, and merchandise, suitable for traffic and gifts to the Indians. The ships successfully reached their place of destination. The high expectations which our emigrants had of that new land were well met by the first views which they had of it. They made their first landing on the bay or entrance to the river Poutaxat,

* In August, 1637.

which they called the river of New Sweden; and the place where they landed they called *Paradise Point.**

A purchase of land was immediately made from the Indians; and it was determined that all the land on the western side of the river, from the point called Cape Inlopen or Hinlopen, up to the fall called Santickan, and all the country inland, as much as was ceded, should belong to the Swedish crown forever. Posts were driven into the ground as landmarks, which were still seen in their places sixty years afterwards. A deed was drawn up for the land thus purchased. This was written in Dutch, because no Swede was yet able to interpret the language of the heathen. The Indians subscribed their hands and marks. The writing was sent home to Sweden to be preserved in the royal archives. Mans Kling was the surveyor. He laid out the land and made a map of the whole river, with its tributaries, islands, and points, which is still to be found in the royal archives in Sweden. Their clergymen was Reorus Torkillus of East Gothland.

The first abode of the newly arrived emigrants was at a place called by the Indians Hopokahacking. There, in the year 1638, Peter Menuet built a fortress which he named Fort Christina, after the reigning Queen of Sweden. The place, situated upon the west side of the river, was probably chosen so as to be out of the way of the Hollanders, who claimed the eastern side—a measure of prudence, until the arrival of a greater force from Sweden. The fort was built upon an eligible site, not far from the mouth of the creek, so as to secure them in the navigable water of the Maniquas, which was afterwards called Christina Kihl, or creek.

The country was wild and uninhabited by the Hollanders. They had two or three forts on the river—Fort Nassau, where Gloucester now stands, and another at Horekihl, down on the bay. But both of these were entirely destroyed by the Americans, and their occupants driven away. The following extract from the *History of the New Netherlands*, which Adrian van der Donck published in the year 1655, with the license and privilege as well of the States-General as of the West India Company, will serve as proof of what we have said.

"The place is called Hore-kihl, but why so called we know not. But this is certain: that some years back, before the English and the Swedes came hither, it was taken up and settled as a colony by Hollanders, the arms of the States being at the same time set up in brass. These arms having been pulled down by the villany of the Indians, the commissary there resident demanded that the head of the traitor should be delivered to him. The Indians, unable to escape in any other way, brought him the head, which was accepted as a sufficient atonement of their offence. But some time afterwards, when we were at work in the fields, and unsuspicious of danger, the Indians came as friends, surrounded the Hollanders with overwhelming numbers, fell upon them, and completely exterminated them. Thus was the colony destroyed, though sealed with blood, and dearly enough purchased."

Notwithstanding all this, the Hollanders believed that they had the best right to the Delaware River; yea, a better right than the Indians themselves. It was their object to secure at least all the land lying between said river and their city of New Amsterdam, where was their stronghold, and which country they once called "The New Netherlands." But, as their forces were still too weak, they always kept one or another of their people upon the east side of the river to watch those who might visit the country. As soon, therefore, as Menuet landed with his Swedish company, notice of the fact was given to the Director-General of the Hollanders in New Amsterdam. He waited for some time, until he could ascertain Menuet's purpose; but, when it appeared that he was erecting a fortress for the Swedes, he sent him the following protest:

"*Thursday, May 6, 1638.*

"I, William Kieft, Director-General of the New Netherlands, residing upon the island of Manhattan, in the Fort Amsterdam, under the government belonging to the High and Mighty States-General of the United Netherlands, and the West India

* In the neighborhood of what is now Lewes, Del.

Company, chartered by the Council Chamber in Amsterdam, make known to you, Peter Menuet, who style yourself Commander in the service of her Royal Majesty, the Queen of Sweden, that the whole South River of the New Netherlands, both above and below, hath already, for many years, been our property, occupied by our forts, and sealed with our blood, which was also done when you were in service in the New Netherlands, and you are, therefore, well aware of this. But whereas you have now come among our forts to build a fortress to our injury and damage, which we shall never permit; as we are also assured that her Royal Majesty of Sweden has never given you authority to build forts upon our rivers and coasts, nor to settle people on the land, nor to traffic in peltries, nor to undertake anything to our injury: We do, therefore, protest against all the disorder and injury, and all the evil consequences of bloodshed, uproar, and wrong which our Trading Company may thus suffer: And that we shall protect our rights in such manner as we may find most advisable." Then follows the usual conclusion.

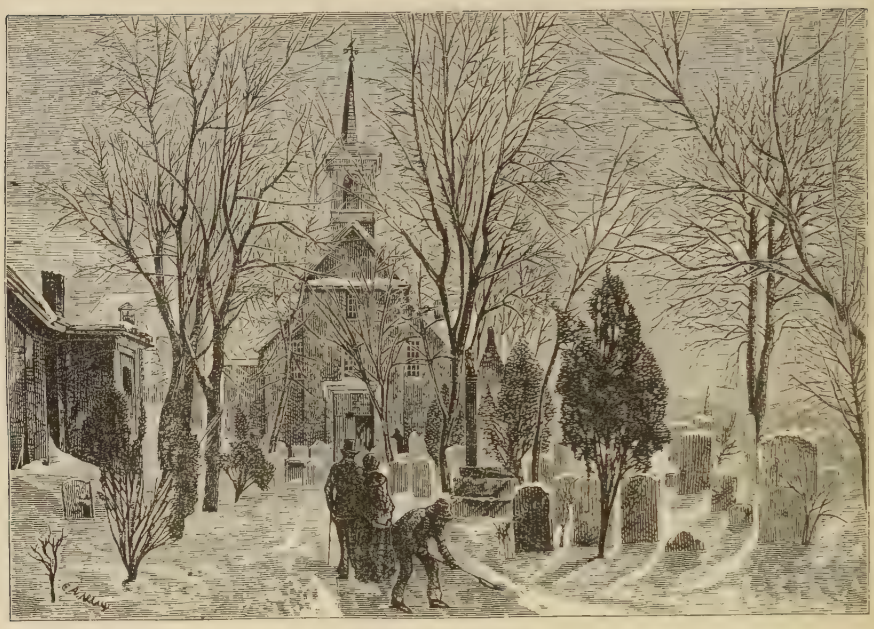
In his *History of the New Netherlands*, already cited, Adrian van der Donck likewise relates how protest was made against the building of Fort Christina; but there, also, he gives evidence of the weakness of the Hollanders in the river, on the first arrival of the Swedes, and that their strength consisted almost entirely in great words.

"On the river," he says, "lies, first, Maniqua's Kihl, where the Swedes have built Fort Christina, where the largest ships can load and unload at the shore. There is another place on the river called Schulkihl, which is also navigable. That, also, was formerly under the control of the Hollanders, but is now mostly under the government of the Swedes. In that river (Delaware) there are various islands and other places, formerly belonging to the Hollanders, whose name they still bear, which sufficiently shows that the river belongs to the Hollanders, and not to the Swedes. Their very commencement will convict them. Before the year 1638, one Minnewits, who had formerly acted as director for the Trading Company at Manhatans, came into the river in the ship *Key of Colmar*, and the yacht called the *Bird Griffin*. He gave out to the Hollander, Mr. Van der Nederhorst, the agent of the West India Company in the South River, that he was on a voyage to the West India Islands, and that he was staying there to take in wood and water. Whereupon said Hollander allowed him to go free. But, some time after, some of our people going thither found him still there, and he had planted a garden, and the plants were growing in it. In astonishment we asked the reasons for such procedure, and if he intended to stay there. To which he answered evasively, alleging various excuses for his conduct. The third time they found them settled and building a fort. Then we saw their purpose. As soon as he was informed of it, Director Kieft protested against it, but in vain."

Thus Peter Menuet made a good beginning for the settlement of the Swedish colony in America. He guarded his little fort for over three years, and the Hollanders neither attempted nor were able to overthrow it. After some years of faithful service he died at Christina. In his place followed Peter Hollendare, a native Swede, who did not remain at the head of its affairs more than a year and a half. He returned home to Sweden, and was a major at Skepsholm, in Stockholm, in the year 1655.

The second emigration took place under Lieut.-Col. John Printz, who went out with the appointment of governor of New Sweden. He had a grant of four hundred rix dollars for his travelling expenses, and one thousand two hundred dollars silver as his annual salary. The company was invested with the exclusive privilege of importing tobacco into Sweden, although that article was even then regarded as unnecessary and injurious, although indispensable since the establishment of the bad habit of its use. Upon the same occasion was also sent out Magister John Campanius Holm, who was called by their excellencies the Royal Council and Admiral Claes Flemming, to become the government chaplain, and watch over the Swedish congregation.

The ship on which they sailed was called the *Fama*. It went from Stockholm to Götheborg, and there took in its freight. Along with this went two other ships-of-



OLD SWEDISH CHURCH.

the-line the *Swan* and the *Charitas*, laden with people, and other necessaries. Under Governor Printz, ships came to the colony in three distinct voyages. The first ship was the *Black Cat*, with ammunition, and merchandise for the Indians. Next, the ship *Swan*, on a second voyage, with emigrants, in the year 1647. Afterwards, two other ships, called the *Key* and *The Lamp*. During these times the clergymen, Mr. Lawrence Charles Lockenius and Mr. Israel Holgh, were sent out to the colony.

The voyage to New Sweden was at that time quite long. The watery way to the West was not well discovered, and, therefore, for fear of the sand-banks off Newfoundland, they kept their course to the east and south as far as to what were then called the Brazates.* The ships which went under the command of Governor Printz sailed along the coast of Portugal, and down the coast of Africa, until they found the eastern passage, then directly over to America, leaving the Canaries ** high up to the north. They landed at Antigua, then continued their voyage northward, past Virginia and Maryland, to Cape **Henlopen.** Yet, in view of the astonishingly long route which they took, the voyage was quick enough in six months' time—from Stockholm on Aug. 16, 1642, to the new fort of Christina, in New Sweden, on Feb. 15, 1643.

The Swedes who emigrated to America belonged partly to a trading company, provided with a charter, who, for their services, according to their condition or agreement, were to receive pay and monthly wages; a part of them also went at their own impulse to try their fortune. For these it was free to settle and live in the country as long as they pleased or to leave it, and they were therefore, by way of distinction from the others, called freemen. At first, also, malefactors and vicious people were sent over, who were used as slaves to labor upon the fortifications. They were kept in chains and not allowed to have intercourse with the other settlers; moreover, a separate place of abode was assigned to them. The neighboring people and country were dis-

* The Azores?

** If they sailed due west to Antigua, they must have gone down south to the latitude of the Cape de Verde Islands.

satisfied that such wretches should come into the colony. It was also, in fact, very objectionable in regard to the heathen, who might be greatly offended by it. Whence it happened that, when such persons came over in Governor Printz's time, it was not permitted that one of them should set foot upon the shore, but they had all to be carried back again, whereupon a great part of them died during the voyage or perished in some other way. Afterwards it was forbidden at home in Sweden, under a penalty, to take for the American voyage any persons of bad fame; nor was there ever any lack of good people for the colony.

Governor Printz was now in a position to put the government upon a safe footing to maintain the rights of the Swedes, and to put down the attempts of the Hollanders. They had lately, before his arrival, patched their little Fort Nassau. On this account he selected the island of Tenackong as his residence, which is sometimes also called Tutaeaenung and Tenicko, about 3 Swedish miles from Fort Christina. The convenient situation of the place suggested its selection, as also the location of Fort Nassau,* which lay some miles over against it, to which he could thus command the passage by water. The new fort, which was erected and provided with considerable armament, was called New Götheborg. His place of residence, which he adorned with orchards, gardens, a pleasure-house, etc., he named Printz Hall. A handsome wooden church was also built at the same place, which Magister Campanius consecrated, on the last great prayer-day which was celebrated in New Sweden, on Sept. 4, 1646. Upon that place, also, all the most prominent freemen had their residences and plantations.

* Fort Nassau was built near the mouth of Timber Creek, below Gloucester Point, N. J. It is said to have been built by Cornelius Mey, in 1623; but when visited by De Vries, ten years afterwards (Jan. 5, 1633), it was in the possession of the Indians, among whom he was afraid to land. We have no evidence that the fort was reoccupied by the Dutch before the establishment of the Swedish colony in 1638.

NEW YORK

New York, the largest city in the United States, and the second largest in the world in point of population. The present city, popularly known as the Greater New York, came into official existence on Jan. 1, 1898, when the act of the legislature, consolidating the counties of Kings and Richmond, part of the county of Queens, and several cities and towns with the former city of New York, went into effect. Under this act the city is divided into the five boroughs of Manhattan, the Bronx, Brooklyn, Queens, and Richmond; has an aggregate area of 326¾ square miles; and is governed by a municipal assembly consisting of 73 aldermen, and a mayor.

In 1904 the consolidated city had an aggregate net bonded debt of $406,567,165. The property valuations (1903) were: Real, $4,751,532,826; personal, $680,866,092; total, $5,432,398,918. There were 2,690 miles of streets, of which 1,699 miles were classed as paved. The total cost of the water-works system was $122,590,000; its daily capacity was 541,454,000 gallons; and the daily consumption was 405,746,000 gallons. The sewer system had a total length of 1,621 miles. There were 533,521 pupils attending the public schools, under 12,602 principals and teachers, and the cost of maintenance for the year, including new sites and buildings, was $20,913,017. The cost of the police department was $12,030,500; of the fire department, $5,968,300; of the street-cleaning department, $5,688,358; of street lighting (gas and electricity), $2,730,566; and of maintenance of city government in all its departments, $106,674,950.

During the fiscal year 1903–04 the imports of merchandise aggregated in value $600,171,033 and the exports $506,808,013. The movement of gold and silver coin and bullion in the same period was: Imports, $29,948,116; exports, $110,327,854, making the total foreign trade of the year $1,247,255,016. During the year ending Sept. 30, 1903, the exchanges at the clearing-house aggregated $70,833,655,940, a decrease in the year of $3,919,533,496. There were in operation on that date

forty-three national banks, with capital aggregating $100,650,000; holding loans and discounts of $631,565,824; individual deposits amounting to $450,732,783; and having total liabilities and assets balanced at $1,207,855,324. The population by the census of 1900 was: Borough of Manhattan, 1,850,093; Borough of the Bronx, 200,507; Borough of Brooklyn, 1,166,582; Borough of Richmond, 67,021; Borough of Queens, 152,999; total, 3,437,202. For early history, see NEW NETHERLAND; NEW YORK, COLONY OF; NEW YORK, STATE OF.

After the capture of New Netherland by the English, and the name of the province as well as the capital (New Amsterdam) was changed to New York, and all the arrangements had been made for a municipal government under English laws, Thomas Willett was appointed the first mayor, in June, 1665, while the sheriff (Schout) and a majority of the new board of aldermen (burgomasters) were Dutch. Willett was much esteemed by all the people of both nationalities.

In 1667 Gov. Francis Lovelace, as a means of raising a revenue, imposed a duty of 10 per cent. upon all imports and exports. This was done upon the sole authority of the Duke of York, and was a revival of the duty formerly levied by the Dutch. Eight towns on Long Island protested against taxes being levied by the governor and council of the province without the royal authority. This protest was publicly burned by the common hangman, and the inhabitants who had consented to the overthrow of the Dutch rule, to "enjoy English liberties," were told that they should have liberty to think of nothing else excepting "how to pay taxes." In 1680 the people boldly opposed the levying of taxes by the sole authority of the Duke of York; and the grand jury of New York indicted the collector of taxes, and he was sent to England for trial on the charge of constructive high-treason for levying taxes without authority. The right to do so was questioned by the courts in England. No accuser appearing, the collector was released.

Alleged Negro Plots.—In 1712 the citizens of New York were disturbed by apprehensions of a conspiracy of their negro slaves to burn the city and destroy the inhabitants. The population then was about 6,000, composed largely of slaves. Nineteen of those suspected of the crime suffered. A more disastrous alarm about a plot of the negroes for destroying the city occurred in the spring and summer of 1741, when the population was about 10,000, one-fifth of whom were negro slaves. The most prominent merchants of the city were engaged in the slave-trade. Conscious of the natural aspirations of the human soul for personal freedom, very stringent rules had been adopted for the subordination of the slaves, and every transgression was severely punished. Every act of insubordination made the community tremble with fear of possible consequences, and this feeling of insecurity needed only a slight provocation to ripen into a general panic. A trifling robbery occurred in March, 1741, in the house of a merchant, which was traced to some negroes. Nine fires occurred in different parts of the city soon afterwards, and though most of them were merely the burning of chimneys, they produced terror. A general alarm was instantly

NEW YORK IN 1665.
(From an old engraving.)

created in the public mind. Numerous arrests were made and a searching investigation was instituted by the magistrates, but no trace of incendiarism could be found. Three heavy rewards were offered by the city authorities for the arrest and conviction of the perpetrators, and a full pardon to such of them as should reveal a knowledge of their crime and of their associates. An indentured servant-woman (Mary Burton) purchased her liberty and secured a reward of $500 by pretending to give information of a plot, formed by a low tavern-keeper and her master and three negroes, to burn the city and murder the white people. This story was confirmed by an Irish prostitute, convicted of a robbery, who, to recommend herself to mercy, turned informer. Many other arrests were now made among the slaves and free negroes. The Supreme Court of the province was specially convened for the investigation of the matter, and a grand jury, composed of some of the principal inhabitants of the city, held a solemn inquest. Other informers besides Mary Burton speedily appeared, and fresh victims were seized. The panic and fury among the population was fearful, and the authorities were stimulated thereby to hurried inquiries, unjust convictions, and the infliction of awful punishments on the innocent. The eight lawyers who then composed the bar of New York all assisted, by turns, in the prosecution. The negroes had no counsel, and were convicted and executed on insufficient evidence. The lawyers vied with each other in abusing the poor, terrified victims, and Chief-Justice De Lancey, in passing sentence, vied with the lawyers in this abuse. Many confessed to save their lives, and then accused others. John Ury, a schoolmaster, and reputed Roman Catholic priest, was denounced by Mary Burton, and, notwithstanding his solemn protestations of innocence and the absence of competent testimony to convict him, he was hanged. His arrest was the signal for the arrest of other white people, and the reign of terror was fearfully intensified; but, when (as in the case of the Salem witchcraft excitement) Mary Burton accused prominent persons known to be innocent, the delusion instantly abated, the prisons were

A VIEW OF NEW YORK IN 1673

cleared of victims, and the public mind was calmed. From May 11 until Aug. 29, 154 negroes were committed to prison, fourteen of whom were burned at the stake, eighteen hanged, and seventy-one transported. During the same period twenty-four white people were imprisoned, four of whom were hanged. There was no more foundation for this insane panic about a negro plot and its fearful consequences than there was for the witchcraft delusion and its terrible results. See WITCHCRAFT.

Riots of 1765.—Opposition to the Stamp Act assumed the form of riot in the city late in October, 1765. A general meeting of citizens was held on the evening of Oct. 31, when 200 merchants signed their names to resolutions condemnatory of the act. A committee of correspondence was appointed, and measures were taken to compel James McEvers, who had been made stamp distributor for New York, to resign. Alarmed by the aspect of the public temper, he had placed the stamps he had received in the hands of acting Governor Colden, who resided within Fort George, protected by a strong garrison under General Gage. Colden had strengthened the fort and replenished the magazine. The people construed this act as a menace, and were highly exasperated. Armed ships were in the harbor, and troops were prepared to enslave them. But the people did not hesitate to assemble in great numbers before the fort (Nov. 1) and demand the delivery of the stamps to their appointed leader. A refusal was answered by defiant shouts, and the populace assumed the character of a mob. They hung Governor Colden in effigy in "the Fields" (see page 417), marched back to the fort, dragged his fine coach to the open space in front of it, tore down the wooden fence around Bowling Green, and, after making a pile of the wood, cast the coach and effigy upon it, and set fire to the whole. The mob then proceeded to the beautiful residence of Major James, of the royal artillery, a little way out of town, where they destroyed his fine library, works of art, and furniture, and desolated his choice garden. Isaac Sears and other leaders of the assembled citizens tried to restrain them, but could not. After parading the streets with the Stamp Act printed upon large sheets and raised upon poles, headed "England's Folly and America's Ruin," they quietly dispersed. The governor gave up the stamps (Nov. 5) to the mayor and the corporation of the city of New York,

OLD HOUSES, NEW YORK CITY, 1679.

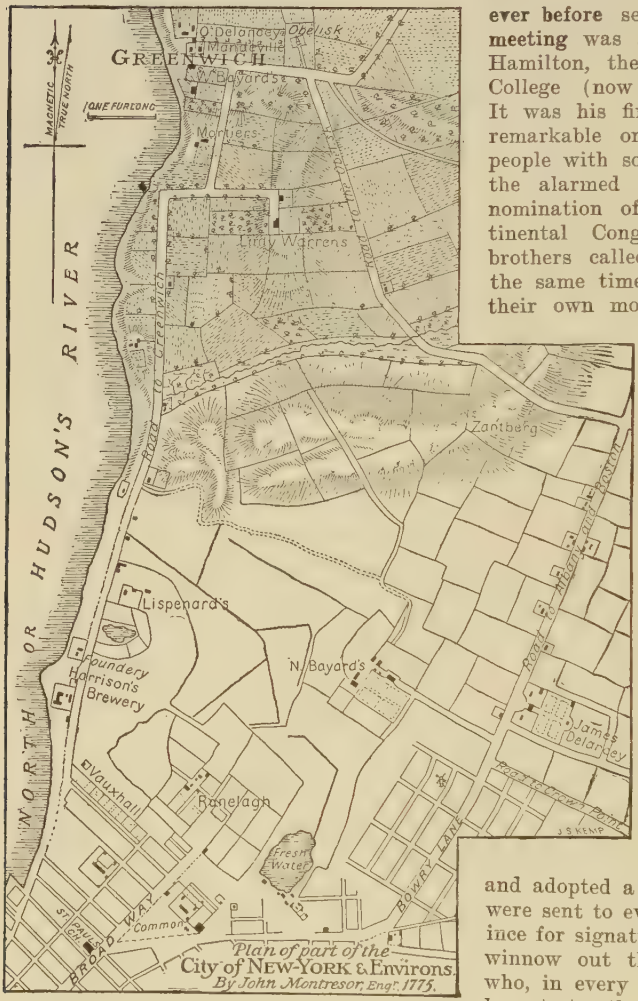
CITY HALL PARK IN 1822, SITE OF "THE FIELDS."

and they were deposited in the City Hall. The losers by the riots were indemnified by the Colonial Assembly.

The Fields.—The space now occupied by the Post-office, City Hall, and City Hall Park, was in the outskirts of the town at the middle of the eighteenth century, and was called "the Fields." There, after the organization of the Sons of Liberty (1765), public meetings of citizens were held under their direction. The first of these of note was in the middle of December, 1769, when 1,400 people gathered, summoned by a handbill distributed over the city, addressed "to the betrayed inhabitants of the city and colony of New York," and signed "A Son of Liberty." It was inspired by an act of the Provincial Assembly, which provided an indirect method of cheating the people into a compliance with the mutiny act and the quartering act. It was the issuing of bills of credit, on the security of the province, to the amount of $700,000, to be loaned to the people, and the interest to be applied to defraying the expenses of, ostensibly, the colonial government, but really for maintaining troops in the province—a monster bank without checks. This money scheme was denounced in the handbill as a covering to wickedness, as a virtual approval of the revenue acts, and that it was intended to distract and divide, and so to weaken, the colonies. It hinted at a corrupt coalition between acting Governor Colden and the powerful James De Lancey, and called upon the Assembly to repudiate the act concocted by this combination. It closed with a summons of the inhabitants to the Fields the next day, Monday, Dec. 17. The people were harangued by young John Lamb, an active Son of Liberty, a prosperous merchant, and vigorous writer. Swayed by his eloquence and logic, the meeting, by unanimous vote, condemned the obnoxious action of the Assembly. They embodied their sentiments in a communication to the Assembly borne by several leading Sons of Liberty. In that House, where the leaven of Toryism was then working, the handbill was pronounced an "infamous and scandalous libel," and a reward was offered for the author. The frightened printer of the handbill gave the name of Alexander McDougall (afterwards General McDougall). He was indicted for libel, and imprisoned fourteen weeks, when he gave bail. He was arraigned, and for the nature of his answer to the indictment

(months afterwards) was again imprisoned, and treated by the patriots as a martyr. In February, 1771, he was released, and this was the end of the drama in the Fields begun in December, 1769.

The conservative republicans of New York, alarmed by the bold movements of the more radical Sons of Liberty, appointed a grand committee of fifty-one, as true "representatives of public sentiment." They repudiated a message sent to Boston (May 14, 1774) by the Sons of Liberty, recommending the revival of non-importation measures, but they heartily approved of a general congress. The radical "Liberty Boys" were offended, and their "vigilance committee" called a meeting of citizens (July 6) in the Fields. It was the largest gathering ever before seen in New York. The meeting was addressed by Alexander Hamilton, then a student in King's College (now Columbia University). It was his first speech, and a most remarkable one; and it stirred the people with so much indignation that the alarmed committee referred the nomination of deputies to the Continental Congress to their radical brothers called the "Tribunes." At the same time they offended some of their own more zealous members by denouncing the resolutions adopted by the meeting in the Fields as seditious, and eleven members withdrew from the committee. Not long afterwards this timid committee disappeared. See PATRICIANS AND TRIBUNES.



PLAN OF THE NORTHERN PART OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK IN 1775.

The Eve of the Revolution. — Two days after the affairs at LEXINGTON and CONCORD (*qq. v.*), the people of New York City held a convention, under the guidance of the Sons of Liberty, at which they formed a patriotic association, and adopted a pledge, copies of which were sent to every county in the province for signatures. The object was to winnow out the Tories—to ascertain who, in every community, was an adherent to the American cause, and who was not. Committees were appointed in each county, town, and precinct, to visit the inhabitants, and obtain the signatures of persons willing to sign and the names of persons who should refuse to sign. A thorough canvass of the

province was thus made. The following is a copy of the pledge:

"Persuaded that the salvation of the rights and liberties of America depend, under God, on the firm union of its inhabitants in a vigorous prosecution of the measures necessary for its safety, and convinced of the necessity of preventing the anarchy and confusion which attend a dissolution of the powers of government, we, the freemen, freeholders, and inhabitants of ——, being greatly alarmed at the avowed design of the ministry to raise a revenue in America, and shocked by the bloody scenes now acting in Massachusetts Bay, do, in the most solemn manner, resolve never to become slaves, and do associate, under all the ties of religion, honor, and love to our country, to adopt, and endeavor to carry into execution, whatsoever measures may be recommended by the Continental Congress or resolved upon by our provincial convention for the purpose of preserving our constitution and of opposing the several arbitrary acts of the British Parliament, until a reconciliation between Great Britain and America, on constitutional principles (which we most solemnly desire), can be obtained; and that we will in all things follow the advice of our general committee respecting the purposes aforesaid, the preservation of peace and good order, and the safety of individuals and property."

On May 15, 1775, the city and county of New York asked the Continental Congress how to conduct themselves with regard to royal regiments which were known to have been ordered to that place. The Congress instructed them not to oppose the landing of troops, but not to suffer them to erect fortifications; to act on the defensive, but to repel force by force, if it should be necessary, for the protection of the inhabitants. Indeed, they had no means for preventing their landing. But this advice of the Continental Congress produced embarrassments, for it virtually recognized the royal authority of every kind in the province of New York; and when its Provincial Congress met it could only conform to the advice. All parties seemed to tacitly agree to a truce in the use of force. There was respect shown towards the crown officers of every kind, and everything that could possibly be done, with honor, was done to avoid collision and make reconciliation possible. The British ship-of-war *Asia* was allowed supplies of provisions. The Provincial Congress disapproved the act of the people in seizing the King's arms; offered protection to Guy Johnson, the Indian agent, if he would promise neutrality on the part of the Indians; and, while they sent to the patriots of Massachusetts the expression of their warmest wishes for the cause of liberty in America, they labored hard for the restoration of harmony between the colonies and Great Britain. This timid or temporizing policy was the fruit of a large infusion of the Tory element that marked the aristocratic portion of the inhabitants of New York. In playing the rôle of peace-maker they committed an almost fatal mistake. Edmund Burke (*q. v.*), who had been the agent for New York in England, expressed his surprise at "the scrupulous timidity which could suffer the King's forces to possess themselves of the most important port in America."

During the winter of 1775–76 disaffection, especially among the older and wealthier families, became conspicuous and alarming to the patriots, and there were fears of the loss of the city of New York to the republican cause. In Queens county, Long Island, the people began to arm in favor of the crown. Hearing of this, General Howe, in Boston, sent Gen. Sir Henry Clinton on a secret expedition. Washington suspected New York was his destination, where Governor Tryon was sowing the seeds of disaffection from his "seat of government" on board the *Duchess of Gordon* in the harbor. The committee of safety and the provincial convention of New York were strongly tinctured with Toryism. General Lee, then in Connecticut, had heard of disaffection there and asked permission of Washington to raise volunteers to go there and suppress it. The privilege was granted, and, with the aid of Governor Trumbull, he embodied about 1,200 volunteers and pressed on towards New York, with the bold "King Sears" as his adjutant-general. His approach (February, 1776) produced great alarm. Many Tories fled with their families to Long Island and

New Jersey; and the timid committee of safety protested against his entering the city, for the captain of the *Asia* had declared that if "rebel troops" were permitted to enter the town, he would cannonade and burn it. Lee pressed forward and encamped in the Fields, and in a proc-

KIP'S HOUSE.

lamation said he had come to prevent the occupation of Long Island and New York by the enemies of liberty. "If the ships-of-war are quiet," he said, "I shall be quiet; if they make my presence a pretext for firing on the town, the first house set in flames by their guns shall be a funeral pile of some of their best friends." Before this manifesto the Tories shrank into inactivity. A glow of patriotism warmed the Provincial Congress, and that body speedily adopted measures for fortifying the city and its approaches and garrisoning it with 2,000 men. On the day when Lee entered New York Sir Henry Clinton arrived at Sandy Hook, but did not deem it prudent to enter the harbor.

Captured by the British.—General Howe selected Sept. 13, 1776, for the landing of his army on New York Island from Long Island. It was the anniversary of the capture of Quebec, in 1759, in which he had participated. The watchword was "Quebec!" the countersign was "Wolfe!" In the afternoon four armed ships, keeping up an incessant fire on the American batteries, passed them into the East River, and anchored, but no landing was attempted that day. On the next day, about sunset, six British vessels ran up the East River, and on the 15th three others entered the Hudson, and anchored off Bloomingdale.

Washington's army had escaped capture on Long Island, but had to contend, in the city of New York, with deadlier foes, in the form of city temptations, sectional jealousies, insubordination, disrespect for superiors, drunkenness, and licentiousness, the fatal elements of dissolution. The British were evidently preparing to crush his weak army. Their ships occupied the bay and both rivers, and there were swarms of loyalists in New York and in Westchester county. At a council of war, Sept. 12, 1776, it was resolved to send the military stores to Dobbs Ferry, on the Hudson, and to retreat to and fortify Harlem Heights, on the northern part of Manhattan Island. The sick were taken over to New Jersey. The main body of the army, accompanied by a host of Whigs, left the city (Sept. 14) and moved towards Fort Washington, leaving a rear-guard of 4,000 men, under General Putnam. On the 16th they were on Harlem Heights, and Washington made his headquarters at the house of Col. Roger Morris, his companion-in-arms in the battle on the Monongahela. On the 15th the British and Germans crossed the East River at Kip's Bay (foot of Thirty-fourth Street), under cover of a cannonade from their ships. The American guard fled at the first fire, and two brigades that were to support them ran away in a panic. But the British were kept back long enough to allow Putnam, with his rear-guard, to escape along a

BEEKMAN'S MANSION.

road near the Hudson River, and gain Harlem Heights. This was done chiefly by the adroit management of Mrs. Murray, a Quakeress, living on the Incleberg (now Murray Hill), who entertained the British officers with wines and other refreshments, and vivacious conversation. Put-

nam, on hearing of the landing at Kip's Bay, had struck his flag at Fort George, foot of Broadway, and made his way to Harlem Heights, sheltered from observation by intervening woods. Lord Dunmore, who was with the British fleet, went ashore and unfurled the British standard over the fort. On the same day British troops, under General Robertson, took possession of the city of New York, and held it seven years, two months, and ten days. Howe made his headquarters at the Beekman mansion at about Fiftieth Street and East River.

Great Fire of 1776.—The British anticipated snug winter quarters in the city of New York, when, at a little past mid-

THE CONFLAGRATION OF 1776.

night, Sept. 21, 1776, a fire broke out in a low drinking-place and brothel—a wooden building on the wharf, near Whitehall Slip. The wind was brisk from the southwest, and the flames spread rapidly, unchecked, for there were few inhabitants in the city. Every building between Whitehall and Broad streets up to Beaver Street was consumed, when the wind veered to the southeast and drove the flames towards Broadway. The buildings on each side of Beaver Street to the Bowling Green were burned. The fire crossed Broadway and swept all the buildings on each side as far as Exchange Street, and on the west side to Partition (Fulton) Street, destroying Trinity Church. Every building westward towards the Hudson River perished. The Tories and British writers of the day charged the destruction of the city to Whig incendiaries. Some of these citizens who came out of the gloom to save their property were murdered by British bayonets or cast into the flames. Even General Howe in his report made the charge, without a shadow of truth, that the accident was the

work of Whig conspirators. About 500 buildings (almost a third part of the city) were laid in ashes.

Evacuation of the City.—In 1783 Washington, Governor Clinton, and Sir Guy Carleton held a conference at Dobbs Ferry, and made arrangements for the British troops to evacuate the city on Nov. 25. On that morning the American troops under General Knox, who had come down from West Point and encamped at Harlem, marched to the "Bowery Lane," and halted at the present junction of Third Avenue and the Bowery. There they remained until about 1 P.M., the British claiming the right of possession until meridian. At that hour the British had embarked at Whitehall, and before 3 P.M. General Knox took formal possession of the city and of Fort George, amid the acclamations of thousands of citizens and of the roar of artillery at the Battery. Washington repaired to his quarters at Fraunce's Tavern, and there, during the afternoon, Governor Clinton gave a public dinner to the officers of the army. In the evening the town was brilliantly illuminated, rockets shot up from many private dwellings, and bonfires blazed at every corner. The British, on leaving, had nailed their flag to the staff in Fort George, and slushed the pole; but John Van Arsdale, a young sailor, soon took it down, and put the stars and stripes in its place. At sunset on that clear, frosty day the last vessel of the retiring British transports disappeared beyond the Narrows.

War Excitement in 1814.—When Hardy's squadron appeared on the New England coast, in the summer of 1814, and a powerful British force appeared in Chesapeake Bay, the inhabitants of New York expected to be attacked, and were as much excited as were those of Boston. The mayor of the city (De Witt Clinton) issued a stirring address to the people, setting forth reasons why New York would probably be attacked, and recommended the militia to be in readiness for duty. He also called upon the citizens to offer their personal services and means to aid in the completion of the fortifications around the city. A large meeting of citizens was held in City Hall Park on Aug. 9, when a committee of defence was chosen from the common council, with ample power to direct the efforts of the inhabitants in the business of securing protection. Men in every class of society worked daily in constructing fortifications at Harlem and Brooklyn. Members of various churches and of social and benevolent organizations went out in groups, as such, to the patriotic task; so, also, did different craftsmen under their respective banners, such as were described, as follows, by Samuel Woodworth:

THE BRITISH FLEET READY TO LEAVE NEW YORK.

"Plumbers, founders, dyers, tinners, tanners, shavers,
Sweeps, clerks and criers, jewellers, engravers,
Clothiers, drapers, players, cartmen, hatters, tailors,
Gaugers, sealers, weighers, carpenters, and sailors."

THE LAST BOAT-LOAD OF THE BRITISH LEAVING NEW YORK.

The zeal of the people was intense; and the city of New York was soon well defended by fortifications and numerous militia. Woodworth wrote a stirring poem, which was everywhere sung. The following is the concluding stanza:

"Better not invade; recollect the spirit
Which our dads displayed and their sons inherit.
If you still advance, friendly caution slighting,
You may get, by chance, a bellyful of fighting.

"CHORUS.

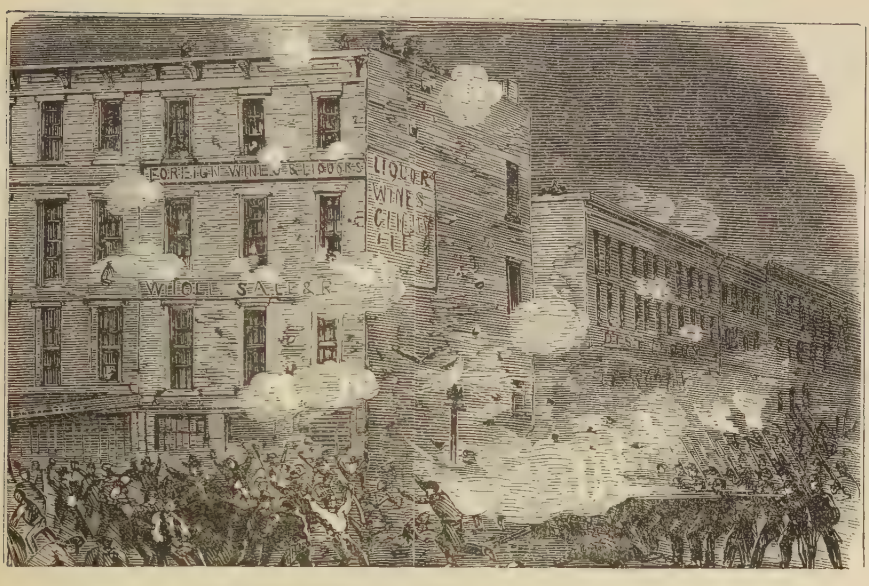
"Pickaxe, shovel, spade, crow-bar, hoe, and barrow;
Better not invade; Yankees have the marrow."

Second Great Fire.—On Dec. 16, 1835, a fire broke out which swept the first ward, east of Broadway and below Wall Street, destroying 529 buildings, most of them valuable stores; also the Merchants' Exchange and the South Dutch Church.

The property destroyed was valued at more than $20,000,000.

In Civil War Days.—Fernando Wood was mayor of the city of New York at the beginning of 1861, and sympathized with the Confederate cause. On Jan. 7 he sent a message to the common council, in which he proposed the secession of the city, and the establishment of a free and independent government of its own. This proposition was in the form of suggestive questions. "Why should not New York City," he asked, "instead of supporting by her contributions in revenues two-

WASHINGTON AND CLINTON AT THE FESTIVITIES CELEBRATING THE EVACUATION OF NEW YORK.



THE DRAFT RIOTS—THE RIOTERS AND THE 7TH REGIMENT.

thirds of the expenses of the United States, become, also, equally independent? As a free city, with but a nominal duty on imports, her local government could be supported without taxation upon her people. Thus we could live free from taxes, and have cheap goods nearly duty free. In this we should have the whole and united support of the Southern States, as well as of all other States, to whose interests and rights under the Constitution she has always been true. . . . New York, as a free city, may shed the only light and hope for a future reconstruction of our beloved confederacy." A favorite writer for *De Bow's Review*, the most stately and pretentious organ of the slave-holders, pronounced this proposition of Mayor Wood "the most brilliant that these times have given birth to." Wood seems to have been startled by his own proposition, for he immediately added, "Yet I am not prepared to recommend the violence implied in these views." The board of aldermen, a majority of whom were Wood's political friends, ordered the

SKY-LINE OF NEW YORK AS IT IS TO-DAY.

printing of 3,000 copies of this message in document form.

The patriotic action of the New York legislature, and the official suggestion of Mayor Wood, alarmed the commercial classes of that emporium, and these and large capitalists hastened to propose conciliation by making any concession to the demands of the South. A war would sweep thousands of the debtors of New York merchants into absolute ruin, and millions of dollars' worth of bills receivable in the hands of their creditors would be made worthless. On Jan. 12, 1861, a memorial, numerously signed by merchants and capitalists, was sent to Congress, praying that body to legislate in the interests of peace, and to give assurances, "with any required guarantees," to the slave-holders, that their right to regulate slavery within their respective States should be secured; that the fugitive slave law should be faithfully executed; that personal liberty acts in "possible conflict" with that law should be "readjusted," and that they should have half the Territories whereof to organize slave-labor States. They were assured, the memorialists said, that such measures "would restore peace to their agitated country." This was followed by another memorial, adopted Jan. 18, at the rooms of the chamber of commerce, similar in tone to the other, and substantially recommending the Crittenden compromise (see CRITTENDEN, JOHN J.) as a basis of pacification. It was taken to Washington early in February, with 40,000 names attached to it. At an immense meeting of citizens at Cooper Institute, Jan. 24, it was resolved to send three commissioners to six of the "seceded States," instructed to confer with "delegates of the people," in convention assembled, in regard to the "best measures calculated to restore the peace and integrity of the Union."

The Draft Riots.—A draft of men for the National army was authorized in April, 1862. The President refrained from resorting to this extreme measure as long as possible, but, owing to the great discouragement to volunteering produced by the peace faction and the KNIGHTS OF THE GOLDEN CIRCLE (*q. v.*), he issued a proclamation, May 8, 1863, for a draft, to begin in July, and caused the appointment in every congressional district of an enrolling board. This was made the occasion for inaugurating a counter-revolution in the free-labor States. Organized resistance to the measure instantly appeared. The leaders of the peace faction denounced the law and all acts under it as despotic and unconstitutional, and Judge McCunn, of New York, so decided. He was sustained by three judges of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania—Lowrie, Woodward, and Thompson—and, supported by these legal decisions, the politicians antagonistic to the administration opposed the draft with a high hand. The public mind was greatly excited by the harangues of public speakers and the utterance of the opposition newspapers when the draft was ordered. The national anniversary was made the special occasion for these utterances, and distinguished members of the peace faction exhorted the people to stand firmly in opposition to what they called the "usurpations of the government." Sneers were uttered on that day because Vicksburg had not been taken, and the President had made "a midnight cry for help" because of Lee's invasion in Maryland; when at that very moment Vicksburg, with 37,000 prisoners, was in the possession of General Grant, and Lee and his army, discomfited at Gettysburg, were preparing to retreat to Virginia. A leading opposition journal counselled its readers to provide themselves with a "good rifled musket, a few pounds of powder, and a hundred or so of shot," to resist the draft.

On the evening of July 3 an incendiary handbill, calculated to incite to insurrection, was scattered broadcast over the city; and it is believed that an organized outbreak had been planned, and would have been executed, but for the defeat of Lee at Gettysburg, and Grant's success at Vicksburg. When, on Monday, July 13, the draft began in a building on Third Avenue, at Forty-sixth Street, a large crowd (who had cut the telegraph wires leading out of the city) suddenly appeared, attacked the building, drove out the clerks, tore up the papers, poured a can of kerosene over the floor, and very soon that and an adjoining building were in flames. The firemen were not allowed to

extinguish them, and the police who came were overpowered, and the superintendent (Kennedy) was severely beaten by the mob. So began a tumult in which thousands of disorderly persons were engaged for full three days and nights, necessitating calling out the militia. The disorders broke out simultaneously at different points, evidently having a central head somewhere. The cry against the draft soon ceased, and those of "Down with the abolitionists!" "Down with the niggers!" "Hurrah for Jeff. Davis!" succeeded. The mob compelled hundreds of citizens—driven out of manufacturing establishments which they had closed, or in the streets—to join them; and, under the influence of strong drink, arson and plunder became the business of the rioters. The special objects of their wrath were the innocent colored people. They laid in ashes the Colored Orphan Asylum, and the terrified inmates, who fled in every direction, were pursued and cruelly beaten. Men and women were beaten to death in the streets, and the colored people in the city were hunted as if they were noxious wild beasts. Finally, the police, aided by the military, suppressed the insurrection in the city, but not until 1,000 persons had been killed or wounded, and property to the amount of $2,000,000 destroyed. Over fifty buildings had been destroyed by the mob, and a large number of stores and dwellings, not burned, were sacked and plundered.

NEW YORK, COLONY OF

New York, COLONY OF. The bay of New York and its great tributary from the north, with the island of Manhattan, upon which part of the city of Greater New York now stands, were discovered by HENRY HUDSON (*q. v.*), in the early autumn of 1609. The Indians called the river Mahiccannick, or "River of the Mountains." The Dutch called it Mauritius, in compliment to Prince Maurice, and the English gave it the name of Hudson River, and sometimes North River, to distinguish it from the Delaware, known as South River. The country drained by the Hudson River, with the adjacent undefined territory, was claimed by the Dutch. The year after the discovery, a ship, with part of the crew of the *Half Moon,* was laden with cheap trinkets and other things suitable for traffic with the Indians, sailed from the Texel (1610), and entered the mouth of the Mauritius. The adventurers established a trading-post at Manhattan, where they trafficked in peltries and furs brought by the Indians, from distant regions sometimes. Among the bold navigators who came to Manhattan at that time was Adrian Block, in command of the *Tigress.* He had gathered a cargo of skins, and was about to depart late in 1613, when fire consumed his ship and cargo. He and his crew built log-cabins at the lower end of Manhattan, and there constructed a rude ship during the winter, which they called *Onrust*—"unrest"—and this was the beginning of the great commercial mart, the city of New York.

In the spring of 1614 Block sailed through the dangerous strait at Hell Gate, passed through the East River and Long Island Sound, discovered the Housatonic, Connecticut, and Thames rivers, and that the long strip of land on the south was an island (Long Island); saw and named Block Island, entered Narraganset Bay and the harbor of Boston, and, returning to Amsterdam, made such a favorable report of the country that commercial enterprise was greatly stimulated, and, in 1614, the States-General of Holland granted special privileges for traffic with the natives by Hollanders. A company was formed, and with a map of the Hudson River region, constructed, probably, under the supervision of Block, they sent deputies to The Hague—the seat of government—to obtain a charter. It was obtained on Oct. 11, 1614, to continue four years. The territory included in this charter of privileges—between the parallels of lat. 40° and 45° N., as "lying between Virginia and New France"—was called NEW NETHERLAND (*q. v.*). At the expiration of the charter, the privilege of a renewal was denied, for a more extended and important charter was under contemplation. In 1602 Dutch merchants in the India trade

A DUTCH WEST INDIA COMPANY'S TRADING-POST.

formed an association with a capital of $1,000,000, under the corporate title of the Dutch East India Company. Their trading privileges extended over all the Indian and Southern oceans between Africa and America. In 1607 they asked for a charter for a Dutch West India Company, to trade along the coast of Africa from the tropics to the Cape of Good Hope, and from Newfoundland to Cape Horn along the continent of America. It was not then granted, for political reasons, but after the discovery of New Netherland the decision was reconsidered, and on June 3, 1620, the States-General chartered the Dutch West India Company, making it not only a great commercial monopoly, but giving it almost regal powers to colonize, govern, and defend, not only the little domain on the Hudson, but the whole unoccupied Atlantic coast of America and the western coasts of Africa.

Meanwhile the Dutch had explored Delaware Bay and River, presumably as far as Trenton, and had endeavored to obtain a four years' charter of trading privileges in that region, but it was regarded as a part of the English province of Virginia. At the same time the traders on the Hudson River had been very enterprising. They built a fort on an island just below the site of Albany, enlarged their storehouse at Manhattan, went over the pine barrens from the Hudson into the Mohawk Valley, and became acquainted with the nations of the IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY (*q. v.*), and made a treaty with them. The Plymouth Company complained that they were intruders on their domain. King James growled, and Captain Dermer gave them a word of warning. The Dutch West India Company was organized in 1622. Its chief objects were traffic and humbling Spain and Portugal, not colonization. But the attention of the company was soon called to the necessity of founding a permanent colony in New Netherland, in accordance with the English policy, which declared that the rights of eminent domain could only be secured by actual permanent occupation. King James reminded the States-General that Hollanders were unlawfully seated on English territory, but the Hollanders paid no more attention to his threats than to take measures for founding an agricultural colony.

At that time Holland was the asylum for the oppressed for conscience' sake from all lands. There was a class of refugees there called Walloons, natives of the southern Belgic provinces, whose inhabitants, about forty years before, being chiefly Roman Catholics, had refused to join those of the northern provinces in a confederacy. The Protestants of these provinces (now Belgium) were made to feel the lash of Spanish persecution, and thousands of them fled to Holland. These were the Walloons, who spoke the French language. They were a hardy, industrious race, and introduced many of the useful arts into their adopted country. Some of them wished to emigrate to Virginia, but the terms of the London Company were not liberal, and they accepted proposals from the Dutch West India Company to emigrate to New Netherland. A ship of 260 tons burden, laden with thirty families (110 men, women, and children), mostly Walloons, with agricultural implements, live-stock of every kind, and a sufficient quantity of household furniture, sailed from the Texel early in March, 1623, with Cornelius Jacobus May, of Hoorn, as commander, who was also to remain as first director, or governor, of the colony. They took the tedious southern route, and did not reach Manhattan until the beginning of May, where they found a French vessel at the mouth of the Hudson, whose commander had been trying to set up the arms of France on the shore, and to take possession of the country in the name of the French monarch. The yacht *Mackerel* had just come down the river. With two cannon taken from the little fort at the southern end of the island, the Frenchman was compelled to desist. His vessel was convoyed to sea, when it went round to

TRADING WITH THE INDIANS.

the Delaware, and there her commander attempted the same kind of proclamation of sovereignty. He was treated by the Dutch settlers there as at Manhattan, when he sailed for France. This performance was the last attempt of the French to assert jurisdiction south of lat. 45° N., until a long time afterwards.

These emigrants were soon scattered to different points to form settlements—some to Long Island, some to the Connecticut River, others to the present Ulster county, and others founded Albany, where the company had built Fort Orange. Four young couples, married on shipboard, went to the Delaware, and began a settlement on the east side of the river (now Gloucester), 4 miles below Philadelphia, where they built a small fortification, and called it Fort Nassau. Eight seamen, who went with them, remained and formed a part of the colony. The company, encouraged by successful trading, nurtured the colony. In 1626 they sent over Peter Minuit as governor, who bought Manhattan Island of the natives, containing, it was estimated, 22,000 acres. At its southern end he built a fort, calling it Fort Amsterdam, and the village that grew up near it was afterwards named NEW AMSTERDAM (*q. v.*). The States-General constituted it a county of Holland. So it was that, within fifteen years after the discoveries of Hudson, the foundations of this great commonwealth were firmly laid by industrious and virtuous families, most of them voluntary exiles from their native lands, to avoid persecution on account of theological dogmas. These were followed by others, equally good and industrious.

In 1629 the company gave to the settlers a charter of "privileges and exemptions," which encouraged the emigration of thrifty farmers from the fatherland. As much land was offered to such emigrants as they could cultivate, with "free liberty of hunting and fowling," under the directions of the governor. They also offered to every person who should "discover any shore, bay, or other fit place for erecting fisheries or the making of salt-ponds," an absolute property in the same. As the rural population of Holland were not generally rich enough to avail themselves of these privileges, grants of extensive domains, with manorial privileges, were offered to wealthy persons who should induce a certain number of settlers to people and cultivate these lands. Under this arrangement some of the most valuable part of the lands of the company passed into the possession of a few persons, and an aristocratic element was introduced. The colony was flourishing when Governor Minuit returned to Amsterdam, in 1632, and was succeeded next year by Wouter Van Twiller, who had married a niece of Killian Van Rensselaer, a rich pearl merchant, and who became a patroon. Van Twiller was stupid, but shrewd, and the colony prospered in spite of him. At the end of four years he was succeeded by WILLIAM KIEFT (*q. v.*), a spiteful, rapacious, and energetic man, whom De Vries numbered among great rascals. His administration was a stormy one. He exasperated the surrounding Indian tribes by his cruelties, and so disgusted the colonists by his conduct that, at their request, he was recalled, and sailed for Europe, with ill-gotten wealth, in the spring of 1647, and perished by shipwreck on the shores of Wales.

Peter Stuyvesant succeeded Kieft. He was a brave soldier, who had lost a leg in battle, and came to New Netherland from Curaçoa, where he had been governor. He was then forty-four years of age, energetic, just, and so self-willed that Washington Irving called him "Peter the Headstrong." He conciliated the Indian tribes, and systematically administered the affairs of the colony. He came in collision with the Swedes on the Delaware and the English on the Connecticut River. During his administration he subdued the Swedes (1655), and annexed the territory to New Netherland. Finally serious political troubles overtook the colony. From the beginning of the settlement the English claimed New Netherland as a part of Virginia, resting their claim upon the discovery of Cabot. In 1622 the English minister at The Hague demanded the abandonment of the Dutch settlements on the Hudson. Five years afterwards Governor Bradford, of Plymouth, gave notice to Governor Minuit that the patent of New England covered the domain of New Netherland. In the spring of 1664 Charles II. granted to his brother James, Duke

of York, all New Netherland, including the region of country between the Hudson and Delaware rivers; and in August the same year an English fleet appeared before New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. Governor Stuyvesant resisted for a while, but was compelled to comply, and the whole territory claimed by the Dutch passed into the possession of the English on Sept. 8, 1664.

At the treaty of peace between England and Holland, the Dutch were allowed to retain the colony of Surinam, in Guiana, England retaining New York. Edmund Andros was appointed governor, and a formal surrender of the province occurred in October. In 1683 Thomas Dongan became governor, and, under instructions from the Duke of York, he called an assembly of representatives chosen by the people, and a charter of liberties was given to the colonists. This was the foundation of representative government in New York; but the privileges promised were denied. When James was driven from the throne, and Nicholson, the lieutenant-governor, afraid of the people, fled, Jacob Leisler, a merchant of republican tendencies, administered the government for some time in the name of the new sovereigns, William and Mary. When Sloughter, the royal governor, came, the enemies of Leisler procured his execution by hanging (see LEISLER, JACOB). During these political troubles, western New York, then inhabited by the Seneca Indians, was invaded by the French, under De Nonville, governor of Canada. Two years later (1689) the Five Nations retaliated by invading Canada. The retribution was terrible. More than 1,000 French settlers were slain, and the whole province was threatened with destruction. The French then attacked the English. A party of Canadians and Indians burned Schenectady in 1690, and murdered nearly all of the inhabitants. In 1691 the province of New York was redivided into ten counties—namely, New York, Westchester, Ulster, Albany, Dutchess, Orange, Richmond, Kings, Queens, and Suffolk. Cornwall county, in Maine, and Dukes

NEW YORK CITY HALL AND DOCKS IN 1679.

county, in Massachusetts, forming a part of the domain of New York, were transferred to those colonies under its new charter.

The French invaded the Mohawk country in 1693, but the greater part of them perished before they reached Canada. Count Frontenac, governor of Canada, prepared to attack the Five Nations with all his power, when the governor of New York (Earl of Bellomont) declared that the English would make common cause with the Iroquois Confederacy. The colony was largely involved in debt by military movements during Queen Anne's War, in which the English and French were engaged from 1702 to 1713. The vicinity of Lake Champlain afterwards became a theatre of hostile events. In 1731 the French built Fort Frederick at Crown Point, for a defence at the natural pass between the Hudson and St. Lawrence; and in 1745 a party of French and Indians invaded the upper valley of the Hudson and destroyed Saratoga. Finally, in 1754, the English and French began their final struggle for supremacy in America, in which the Indians bore a conspicuous part (see FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR). Meanwhile the colony had been the theatre of warm political strife between the adherents of royalty and democracy. The death of Leisler had created intense popular feeling against royal rule by deputies, and there was continual contention between the popular Assembly and the royal governor. There was a struggle for the freedom of the press, in which the people triumphed. A colonial convention was held at Albany in 1754, to devise a plan of union (see ALBANY), and during the French and Indian War many of its most stirring events occurred in the province of New York. That war ended by treaty in 1763, and not long afterwards began the struggle of the English-American colonies against the oppressions of Great Britain. New York took a leading part in that struggle, and in the war for independence that ensued.

The Provincial Assembly of New York steadily refused compliance with the demands of the mutiny and quarantine acts, and early in 1767 Parliament passed an act "prohibiting the governor, council, and Assembly of New York passing any legislative act for any purpose whatsoever." Partial concessions were made; but a new Assembly, convened in February, 1768, composed of less pliable

NEW YORK HARBOR IN COLONIAL DAYS.

ALONG THE WATERFRONT, OLD NEW YORK

BROAD STREET, NEW YORK, 1740.

materials, would not recede from its position of independence, though the province was made to feel the full weight of the royal displeasure. In May, 1769, the Assembly yielded, and made an appropriation for the support of the troops. In December the Assembly, under a pretext of enacting laws for the regulation of trade with the Indians, and with the concurrence of the lieutenant-governor (Colden), invited each province to elect representatives to a body which should exercise legislative power for them all. This was a long stride towards the **American Union.** Virginia chose representatives for the Congress, but the British ministry, who saw in the movement a prophecy of independence, defeated the scheme.

On Jan. 26, 1775, Abraham Tenbroeck moved, in the New York Assembly, to take into consideration the proceedings of the first Continental Congress. He was ably seconded by Philip Schuyler and a greater portion of those who were of Dutch descent, as well as George Clinton. The motion was lost by a majority of one. Toryism was then rife in the Assembly. They refused to vote thanks to the New York delegates in the Congress, or to print the letters of the committee of correspondence. They expressed no favor for the American Association; and when, on Feb. 23, it was moved to send delegates to the second Continental Congress, the motion was defeated by a vote of 9 to 17. The Assembly was false to its constituents, for a majority of the province was, in heart, with Massachusetts. After the Provincial Assembly had adjourned, never to meet again (April 3, 1775), a committee of sixty was appointed in the city of New York to enforce the regulations of the American Association. Warmly supported by the Sons of Liberty, they took the lead in political matters. By their recommendation the people in the several counties chose representatives for a Provincial Congress, which body first convened on May 22, 1775.

The conservatism of New York disappeared when it was evident that the door of reconciliation had been closed by the King. On May 24, the convention referred the vote of the Continental Congress of the 15th, on the establishment of independent State governments, to a committee composed of John Morin Scott, Haring, Remsen, Lewis, Jay, Cuyler, and Broome.

THE CANAL, BROAD STREET.

They reported in favor of the recommendation of the Congress. On the 31st, provision was made for the election of new deputies, with ample power to institute

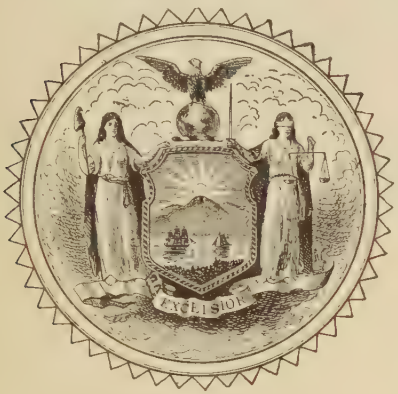
a government which should continue in force until a future peace with Great Britain. Early in June the Provincial Congress had to pass upon the subject of independence. Those who had hitherto hesitated, with a hope of conciliation, now fell into line with the radicals, and on the 11th the Provincial Congress, on motion of John Jay, called upon the freeholders and electors of the colony to confer on the deputies to be chosen full powers for administering government, framing a constitution, and deciding the important question of independence. The newly instructed Congress was to meet at White Plains on July 9 (1776). Meanwhile the Continental Congress, by the vote of eleven colonies, had adopted (July 2) a resolution for independence, and a declaration of the causes for the measure on July 4. The new Congress of New York assembled at White Plains on the 9th, with Nathaniel Woodhull as president; and on the afternoon of that day, when thirty-five delegates were present, John Jay made a report in favor of independence. The convention approved it by a unanimous vote, and directed the Declaration adopted at Philadelphia to be published with beat of drum at White Plains, and in every district of the colony. They empowered their delegates in Congress to join heartily with the others in moving on the car of revolution, and called themselves the representatives of the State of New York. So the vote of the thirteen colonies on the subject of independence was made complete, and New York never swerved from the path of patriotic duty then entered.

New York, State of. On Aug. 1, 1776, the new provincial convention, sitting at White Plains, appointed a committee to draw up and report a constitution for the State. John Jay was the chairman of this committee. The convention was made migratory by the stirring events in the ensuing autumn and winter, and it sat, after leaving White Plains, at Fishkill and at Kingston. At the latter place the committee reported a draft of a constitution, written by Mr. Jay. It was under consideration in the convention more than a month, and was finally adopted April 20, 1777. Under it a State government was established by an ordinance passed in May, and the first session of the legislature was held in July. Meanwhile, elections were held in all the counties excepting New York, Kings, Queens, and Suffolk, then held by the British troops. Brig.-Gen. George Clinton was elected governor, and Pierre Van Cortlandt, president of the Senate, became lieutenant-governor. John Jay was made chief-justice, Robert R. Livingston, chancellor, and Philip Livingston, James Duane, Francis Lewis, and Gouverneur Morris, delegates to the Continental Congress. By the provisions of the constitution, the governor was to be elected by the people for the term of three years, the legislative department, vested in a Senate and Assembly, deriving their powers from the same source; all inferior offices to be filled by the governor and a council of four senators, one from each district; and to a council of revision, similarly constituted, was assigned the power to pass upon the validity and constitutionality of legislative acts.

THE CONSTITUTION HOUSE, KINGSTON.

In October following, a British marauding force went up the Hudson and burned Kingston. The records were removed first to the interior of Ulster county, and thence to Poughkeepsie, where the legislators reassembled early in 1778. That city was the State capital until 1784, when it was removed to the city of New York.

In 1797 Albany was made the permanent State capital. The State constitution was revised in 1801, 1821, 1846, and 1894. During the War of 1812–15 the frontiers of New York were almost continually scenes of hostilities. New York was the



SEAL OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

pioneer in establishing canal navigation. In 1796 the Western Inland Lock Navigation Company was incorporated, and improved the bateau-navigation of the Mohawk River, connecting its waters with Oneida Lake by a canal, so that boats laden with merchandise could pass from the ocean to that lake, and then by its outlet and Oswego River to Lake Ontario. In 1800 Gouverneur Morris conceived a plan for connecting Lake Erie with the ocean by means of a canal, and the great Erie Canal that accomplished it was completed in 1825 (see CANALS). In November, 1874, several amendments proposed by the legislature were ratified by a vote of the people. These removed the property qualifications of colored voters; restricted the power of the legislature to pass private or local bills; made changes in the executive departments; prescribed an oath of office in relation to bribery; established safeguards against official corruption; and removed restrictions imposed upon the legislature in regard to selling or leasing certain of the State canals.

During the Civil War, the State furnished to the National army 455,568 troops. Of that number the city of New York furnished 267,551. In 1869 the legislature ratified the Fifteenth Amendment to the national Constitution. In 1870 this action was annulled by a resolution, and the latter was rescinded in 1872. Slavery, which had been much restricted by the first constitution, was abolished in 1817, but a few aged persons continued in nominal slavery several years later. The revised constitution of the State was adopted November, 1894, materially restricting the proportionate representation of New York and Kings counties. Population in 1890, 5,997,853; in 1900, 7,268,012. See UNITED STATES, NEW YORK, in vol. ix.

GOVERNORS OF NEW YORK.

UNDER THE DUTCH.

Name.	Term.
Cornelius Jacobsen May	1624
William Verhulst	1625
Peter Minuit	May 4, 1626 to 1633
Wouter Van Twiller	April, 1633 " 1638
William Kieft	March 28, 1638 " 1647
Peter Stuyvesant	May 11, 1647 " 1664

UNDER THE ENGLISH.

Richard Nicolls	Sept. 8, 1664 to 1668
Francis Lovelace	Aug. 17, 1668 " 1673

DUTCH RESUMED.

Anthony Colve	1673 to 1674

ENGLISH RESUMED.

Edmund Andros	Nov. 10, 1674 to 1683
Thomas Dongan	Aug. 27, 1683 " 1688
Francis Nicholson	1688 " 1689
Jacob Leisler	June 3, 1689 " 1691
Henry Sloughter	March 19, 1691
Richard Ingoldsby	July 26, 1691 " 1692
Benjamin Fletcher	Aug. 30, 1692 " 1698
Richard, Earl Bellomont	1698 " 1701
John Nanfan	1701 " 1702
Lord Cornbury	May 3, 1702 " 1708
John, Lord Lovelace	Dec. 18, 1708 " 1709
Richard Ingoldsby	May 9, 1709 " 1710
Gerardus Beekman	April 10, 1710
Robert Hunter	June 14, 1710 " 1719
Peter Schuyler	July 21, 1719 " 1720
William Burnet	Sept. 17, 1720 " 1728
John Montgomery	April 15, 1728 " 1731
Rip Van Dam	1731 " 1732
William Cosby	Aug. 1, 1732 " 1736
George Clarke	1736 " 1743
George Clinton	Sept. 2, 1743 " 1753
Sir Danvers Osborne	Oct. 10, 1753
James De Lancey	Oct. 12, 1853 " 1755
Sir Charles Hardy	Sept. 3, 1755 " 1757
James De Lancey	June 3, 1757 " 1760
Cadwallader Colden	Aug. 4, 1760 " 1761
Robert Monckton	Oct. 26, 1761
Cadwallader Colden	Nov. 18, 1761 " 1765
Sir Henry Moore	Nov. 18, 1765 " 1769
Cadwallader Colden	Sept. 12, 1769 " 1770
John, Lord Dunmore	Oct. 19, 1770 " 1771
William Tryon	July 9, 1771 " 1777

STATE GOVERNORS.

Name.	Party.	When Elected.	Opponents.	Party.
George Clinton		1777 1780 1783 1786 1789 1792	 Robert Yates. John Jay.	
John Jay		1795 1798	Robert Yates Robert Livingston.	Dem.-Rep.
George Clinton		1801	Stephen Van Rensselaer.	
Morgan Lewis	Dem.-Rep.	1804	Aaron Burr.	
Daniel D. Tompkins	Dem.-Rep.	1807 1810 1813 1816	Morgan Lewis. Jonas Platt. Stephen Van Rensselaer. Rufus King.	
John Taylor		1817		
De Witt Clinton		1817 1820	Peter B. Porter. Daniel D. Tompkins.	
Joseph C. Yates		1822	Solomon Southwick.	
De Witt Clinton		1824 1826	Samuel Young. William B. Rochester.	
Nathaniel Pitcher				
Martin Van Buren	Democrat.	1828	Smith Thompson. Solomon Southwick	Anti-masonic.
Enos T. Throop	Democrat.	1829 1830	Francis Granger Ezekiel Williams.	Anti-masonic.
William L. Marcy	Democrat.	1832 1834 1836	Francis Granger William H. Seward Jesse Buel. Isaac S. Smith.	Anti-masonic. Whig.
William H. Seward	Whig	1838 1840	William L. Marcy William C. Bouck Gerrit Smith.	Democrat. Democrat.
William C. Bouck	Democrat.	1842	Luther Bradish. Alvan Stewart.	
Silas Wright, Jr	Democrat.	1844	Millard Fillmore Alvan Stewart.	Whig.
John Young	Whig	1846	Silas Wright, Jr. Ogden Edwards. Henry Bradley.	Democrat.
Hamilton Fish	Whig	1848	John A. Dix Reuben H. Walworth. William Goodell.	Democrat.
Washington Hunt	Whig	1850	Horatio Seymour	Democrat.
Horatio Seymour	Democrat.	1852	Washington Hunt Minthorne Tompkins.	Whig.
Myron H. Clark	Whig	1854	Horatio Seymour Daniel Ullman. Green C. Bronson.	Democrat.
John A. King	Republican	1856	Amasa J. Parker Erastus Brooks.	Democrat.
Edwin D. Morgan	Republican	1858 1860	Amasa J. Parker Lorenzo Burrows. Gerrit Smith. William Kelly. James T. Brady.	Democrat.
Horatio Seymour	Democrat.	1862	James S. Wadsworth	Republican.
Reuben E. Fenton	Republican	1864 1866	Horatio Seymour John T. Hoffman	Democrat. Democrat.
John T. Hoffman	Democrat.	1868 1870	John A. Griswold Stewart L. Woodford	Republican. Republican.
John A. Dix	Republican	1872	Francis Kernan	Democrat.
Samuel J. Tilden	Democrat.	1874	John A. Dix	Republican.
Lucius Robinson	Democrat.	1876	Edwin D. Morgan	Republican.
Alonzo B. Cornell	Republican	1879	Lucius Robinson John Kelly Harris Lewis. John W. Mears.	Democrat. Tam.-Dem.
Grover Cleveland	Democrat.	1882	Charles J. Folger Alphonso A. Hopkins Epenetus Howe	Republican. Prohibition. Greenback.
David B. Hill	Democrat.	1884 1885 1888	Ira Davenport H. Clay Bascom Warner Miller W. Martin Jones	Republican. Prohibition. Republican Prohibition

STATE GOVERNORS—*Continued.*

Name.	Party.	When Elected.	Opponents.	Party.
Roswell P. Flower....	Democrat.	1891	J. Sloat Fassett.....	Republican.
Levi P. Morton.....	Republican.	1894	David B. Hill.....	Democrat.
			Everett P. Wheeler.....	Democrat.
Frank S. Black.....	Republican.	1896	Wilbur F. Porter.....	Democrat.
Theodore Roosevelt....	Republican.	1898	Augustus Van Wyck....	Democrat.
Benj. B. Odell, Jr....	Republican.	1900	John B. Stanchfield.....	Democrat.
Francis W. Higgins...	Republican.	1904	D-Cady Herrick.....	Democrat.
Charles E. Hughes.....	Republican.	1906	William R. Hearst.....	Democrat.

The first governors of the State entered office on July 1 following election, but since 1823 the date has been Jan. 1. The term of office was, up to 1823, three years; then until 1876, two years; from 1876 until 1895, three years; from 1895, two years. The governor and lieutenant-governor must be thirty years of age, a citizen of the United States, and five years a resident of the State.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Philip Schuyler.....	1st	1789 to 1791
Rufus King.....	1st to 4th	1789 " 1796
Aaron Burr.....	2d " 5th	1791 " 1797
John Lawrence.....	4th " 6th	1796 " 1800
Philip Schuyler.....	5th	1797 " 1798
John Sloss Hobart.....	5th	1798
William North.....	5th	1798
James Watson.....	5th to 6th	1799 to 1800
Gouverneur Morris.....	6th " 7th	1800 " 1803
John Armstrong.....	6th " 8th	1801 " 1804
De Witt Clinton.....	7th " 8th	1802 " 1803
Theodore Bailey.....	8th	1803 " 1804
Samuel L. Mitchell.....	8th to 11th	1804 " 1809
John Smith.....	8th " 13th	1803 " 1813
Obadiah German.....	11th " 14th	1809 " 1815
Rufus King.....	13th " 19th	1813 " 1825
Nathan Sanford.....	14th " 17th	1815 " 1821
Martin Van Buren.....	18th " 20th	1823 " 1828
Nathan Sanford.....	19th " 22d	1826 " 1831
Charles E. Dudley.....	20th " 23d	1828 " 1833
William L. Marcy.....	22d	1831 " 1832
Silas Wright, Jr.....	22d to 28th	1832 " 1844
Nathaniel P. Tallmadge..	23d " 28th	1833 " 1844
Henry A. Foster.....	28th	1844
John A. Dix.....	28th to 31st	1845 to 1849
Daniel S. Dickinson.....	28th " 32d	1845 " 1851
William H. Seward.....	31st " 37th	1849 " 1861
Hamilton Fish.....	32d " 35th	1851 " 1857
Preston King.....	35th " 38th	1857 " 1863
Ira Harris.....	37th " 40th	1861 " 1867
Edwin D. Morgan.....	38th " 41st	1863 " 1869
Roscoe Conkling.....	40th " 47th	1867 " 1881
Reuben E. Fenton.....	41st " 44th	1869 " 1875
Francis Kernan.....	44th " 47th	1875 " 1881
Thomas C. Platt.....	47th	1881
Elbridge G. Lapham.....	47th to 49th	1881 to 1885
Warner Miller.....	47th " 50th	1881 " 1887
William M. Evarts.....	49th " 52d	1885 " 1891
Frank Hiscock.....	50th " 53d	1887 " 1893
David B. Hill.....	52d " 55th	1891 " 1897
Edward Murphy, Jr.....	53d " 56th	1893 " 1899
Thomas C. Platt.....	55th " ——	1897 " ——
Chauncey M. Depew.....	56th " ——	1899 " ——

New York Public Library, THE. Arthur E. Bostwick, of the New York Public Library, writes:

The present New York Public Library—Astor, Lenox, and Tilden foundations—is the result, as its name indicates, of the consolidation of several pre-existing institutions. The three whose names appear in the title were united on May 23, 1895, and on Feb. 25, 1901, the New York Free Circulating Library was added to the combination, the new body retaining its old name.

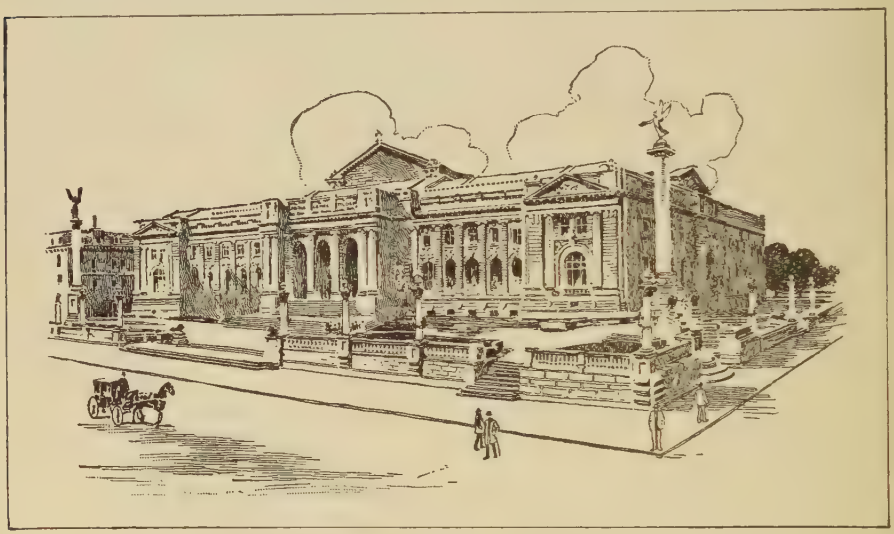
Of these various consolidated institutions the Astor Library was originally incorporated Jan. 18, 1849. It was endowed and supported by various gifts of the Astor family, and at the time of consolidation owned its site and buildings on Lafayette Place, with 267,147 volumes, and enjoyed an annual income of about $47,000.

The Lenox Library, incorporated Jan. 20, 1870, as the gift to the public of James Lenox, owned its site and building on Fifth Avenue, between 70th and 71st streets, with 86,000 volumes and an annual income of $20,500.

The Tilden trust, created by the will of Samuel J. Tilden, possessed Mr. Tilden's private library of about 20,000 volumes and an endowment fund of about $2,000,000, but neither lands nor buildings. The Public Library thus began its existence with a total number of volumes of 373,147 and an endowment of about $3,500,000. The library as thus constituted was for reference only.

On March 25, 1896, in an address to the mayor of the city regarding the future policy of the library, the trustees offered to extend its facilities to the furnishing of books for home use, provided the city would build and equip a new home for

the library, preferably on the site of the old reservoir on Fifth Avenue, between 40th and 42d streets (Bryant Park). The result of this was the passage of a legislative act, approved May 19, 1897, giving the city power to issue bonds for this purpose, and on Nov. 10 of that year plans prepared by Carrere & Hastings, of New York, were selected and approved by the board of estimate of the city. A contract fixing the conditions on which the building should be held and used by the library was at once entered into between the trustees and the city authorities, but the actual work of preparing the site by the removal of the old reservoir did not begin until June 6, 1899. The building will probably be completed about 1904, and will be one of the finest structures of its kind in the world. Its length will be 350 feet, and its width 250, and it will include a stack-room with shelving for 1,500,000 books, and a main reading-room, seating 800 readers, besides a large circulating-room, a children's room, public document, periodical, and patent rooms, and many rooms for special collections, besides picture galleries and administrative offices.



NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, FROM ARCHITECT'S PLANS.

While the Public Library was at this time for reference use only, the lending of books for home use was carried on in the city by several other institutions, the largest of which was the New York Free Circulating Library. This institution, first incorporated on March 15, 1880, began to lend books at that time in a small building on Bond Street, and had grown until, in 1901, it operated eleven free lending libraries, with reading-rooms and a travelling library department, through which books were distributed in schools, clubs, etc. It owned five buildings, 170,000 books, and had endowment funds of about $225,000. It had circulated in the year ending Oct. 31, 1900, 1,634,523 volumes. Like other smaller institutions of the same kind it was supported largely by an annual municipal grant. On Feb. 25, 1901, by the consolidation of this institution with the Public Library, the latter became possessed of a department of circulation.

On March 12, 1901, Mr. Andrew Carnegie offered to the city of New York, through the director of the Public Library, to build and equip sixty-five branch libraries, at a cost estimated at $80,000 each, or a total of $5,200,000, provided the city would furnish sites and agree to maintain the libraries when built. This offer was accepted. By the provisions of

a contract entered into between the city and the library to carry out the terms of this gift so far as the boroughs of Manhattan, the Bronx, and Richmond are concerned, these boroughs are to have forty-two of the new buildings, of which not more than ten are to be built in any one year, and the city agrees to appropriate annually for maintenance not less than 10 per cent. of the cost. The city must approve all sites, whether acquired by purchase or by gift, but the library is to control the construction of the buildings and administer the libraries contained therein. This gift insures not only that the city shall have an adequate number of new branch libraries, but that such as already exist shall be properly housed, provided they become part of the Public Library system. A bill to facilitate such union on the part of the smaller libraries was signed by the governor in the spring of 1901.

The buildings where the work of the library is carried on at present are as follows:

REFERENCE BRANCHES.

Astor Building, 40 Lafayette Place.
Lenox Building, 890 Fifth Avenue.

CIRCULATING BRANCHES.

Bond Street, 49 Bond Street.
Ottendorfer, 135 Second Avenue.
George Bruce, 226 West 42d Street.
Jackson Square, 251 West 13th Street.
Harlem, 218 East 125th Street.
Muhlenberg, 130 West 23d Street.
Bloomingdale, 206 West 100th Street.
Riverside, 261 West 69th Street.
Yorkville, 1523 Second Avenue.
Thirty-fourth Street, 215 East 34th Street.
Chatham Square, 22 East Broadway.

The library now contains about 500,000 volumes and 175,000 pamphlets in the reference department, and 175,000 volumes in the circulating department. Among noteworthy special collections are the public documents (60,000 volumes); American history (30,000 volumes); patents (10,000 volumes); music (10,000 volumes); Bibles (8,000 volumes); Hebrew and Oriental works (8,000 volumes); Slavonic books (2,000 volumes); and Shakespeariana (3,000 volumes). The number of readers yearly in the reference department is about 125,000, and 500,000 volumes are consulted. In the circulation department 1,700,000 volumes are withdrawn yearly for home use, of which 28 per cent. is juvenile fiction and 33 per cent. adult fiction; and 125,000 volumes are read in the libraries. The reading-room attendance exceeds 200,000.

The library as at present organized is managed by a board of twenty-one trustees, one of whom is the comptroller of the city, *ex officio*. The direct charge of the library and its staff is intrusted to a director, who, since the formation of the Public Library in 1895, has been Dr. John Shaw Billings. The library publishes two monthly periodicals, the *Bulletin*, containing monthly reports and statements, with selections from the manuscript collections of the library, and the *Monthly List of Additions* to the circulating department.

The largest collection of books is in the Astor Building, 40 Lafayette Place, which contains also the executive offices, including the office of the director. The reading halls and catalogues are on the second floor. Books wanted must be called for at the desk, except such as are contained in the open reference collection of about 5,000 volumes, which may be consulted freely. No book may be taken from the building.

The Lenox Building contains numerous special collections, such as those of rare or curious editions, manuscripts, prints, maps, genealogies, etc., and also a considerable number of valuable works of art, including the collection of modern paintings made by Robert L. Stuart and the Lenox collection of works by Copley, Landseer, Gainsborough, Reynolds, Turner, Wilkie, etc. Permission to copy these paintings may be obtained on application. The building includes two large reading-rooms on the ground floor and smaller ones on the upper floors, besides stack-rooms and exhibition galleries.

To obtain books for home use, written application, giving the name of a responsible guarantor, must be made at one of the libraries of the circulation department, as noted above. Two books at a time (only one of fiction) may be taken out and kept two weeks, except where specially restricted to one week. The users are allowed free access to all the shelves. Each of these branch libraries

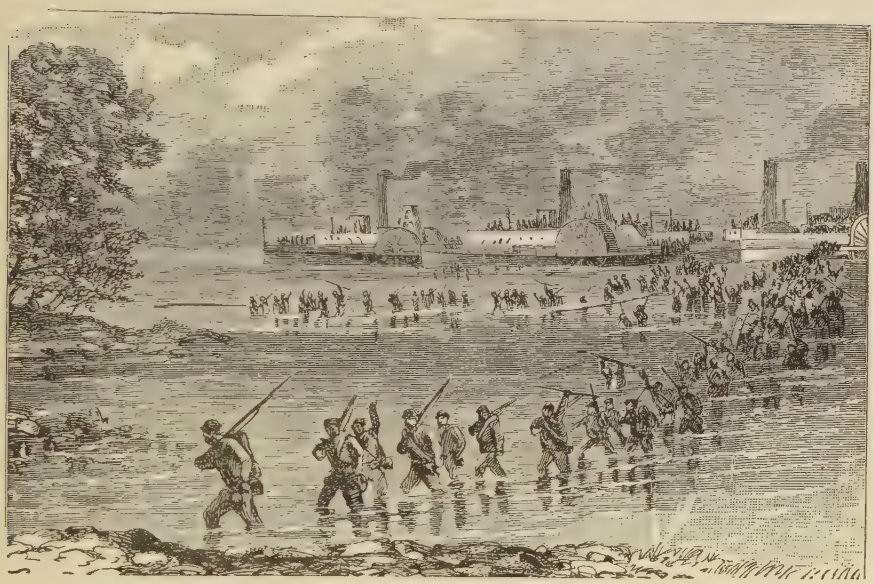
contains also a small reference collection, and most of them have reading-rooms supplied with periodicals. The present administrative offices of the circulating department are at the George Bruce Branch, 226 West 42d Street.

Newark, chief city in New Jersey, noted for the variety and extent of its manufactures and its large insurance interests; population in 1890, 181,830; in 1900, 246,070. The purchase of the site of Newark and the adjoining settlements of Bloomfield, Belleville, Caldwell, and the Oranges was made in 1666 by a party from Milford, Conn., for which they gave the Indians 50 double hands of powder, 100 bars of lead, 20 axes, 20 coats, 10 guns, 20 pistols, 10 kettles, 10 swords, 4 blankets, 4 barrels of beer, 2 pairs of breeches, 50 knives, 20 hoes, 850 fathoms of wampum, 2 ankers of whiskey, and 3 troopers' coats. Others joined the first settlers, in the autumn, from Guilford and Branford. Self-government and independence of the proprietors seem to have been secured to the new colony, as well as religious freedom guaranteed. The colonists agreed that no one should be admitted to the rights of freemen in the colony except he belonged to the Congregational Church. Abraham Pierson was chosen minister of the first church, and the settlement was called Newark, says Whitehead, in compliment to him, he having come from a place of that name in England.

Newark (N. Y.), Destruction of. When General McClure, early in December, 1813, resolved to abandon Fort George, the question presented itself to his mind, "Shall I leave the foe comfortable quarters, and thus endanger Fort Niagara?" Unfortunately, his judgment answered "No"; and, after attempting to blow up Fort George while its little garrison was crossing the river to Fort Niagara, he set fire to the beautiful village of Newark, near by. The weather was intensely cold. The inhabitants had been given only a few hours' warning, and, with little food and clothing, a large number of helpless women and children were driven from their homes by the flames into the wintry air and deep snow, homeless wanderers. It was a wanton and cruel act. Only one house out of 150 in the village was left standing. When the British arrived at Fort George they resolved on swift retaliation, and very soon six villages and many isolated houses along the New York side of the Niagara River, together with some vessels, were burned, and scores of innocent persons were massacred.

Newbern, Capture of. After the capture of Roanoke Island (*q. v.*), the National forces made other important movements on the coast of North Carolina (*q. v.*). Goldsborough having been ordered to Fort Monroe, the fleet was left in command of Commodore Rowan. General Burnside, assisted by Generals Reno, Foster, and Parke, at the head of 15,000 troops, proceeded against Newbern, on the Neuse River. They appeared with the fleet in that stream, about 18 miles below the city, on the evening of March 12, 1862, and early the next morning the troops were landed and marched against the defences of the place. The Confederates, under General Branch, were inferior in numbers, but were strongly intrenched. The march of the Nationals was made in a drenching rain, the troops dragging heavy cannon after them through the wet clay, into which men sometimes sank knee-deep. At sunset the head of the Nationals was halted and bivouacked within a mile and a half of the Confederate works, and during the night the main body came up. Meanwhile the gunboats had moved up the river abreast the army, Rowan's flag-ship *Delaware* leading.

The Confederate forces consisted of eight regiments of infantry and 500 cavalry, with three batteries of field-artillery of six guns each. These occupied a line of intrenchments extending more than a mile, supported by an immense line of rifle-pits and detached works. On the river-bank, 4 miles below Newbern, was Fort Thompson, armed with thirteen heavy guns. The Nationals made the attack at 8 A.M. on the 14th. Foster's brigade bore the brunt of the battle for about four hours. General Parke supported him until it was evident that Foster could sustain himself, when the former, with nearly his whole brigade, went to the support of General Reno in a flank movement. After the 4th Rhode Island Battery had captured a Confederate one and dispersed the garrison, Reno, who had been losing heavily in front of another



TROOPS LANDING AT NEWBERN.

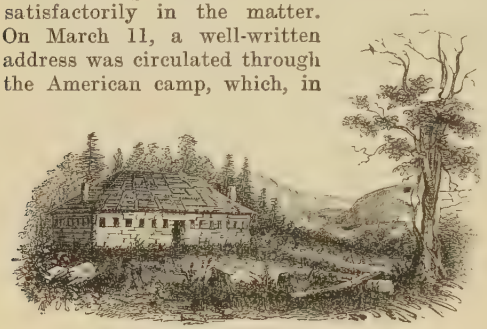
battery, called up his reserves of Pennsylvanians, under Colonel Hartranft, and ordered them to charge the work. It was speedily done, and the battery was captured with the assistance of New York, New Jersey, and Massachusetts troops.

Pressed on all sides, the Confederates now fled, leaving everything behind, and were pursued by Foster to the verge of the Trent. The Confederates burned the railroad and turnpike bridges over that stream behind them (the former by sending a blazing raft against it) and escaped. The gunboats had compelled the evacuation of Fort Thompson. Large numbers of the inhabitants of Newbern fled from the town. Foster's troops took possession of the place, and the general was appointed military governor of Newbern. The Nationals lost 100 killed and 498 wounded. The Confederate loss was much less in killed and wounded, but 200 of them were made prisoners. They reported 64 killed, 101 wounded, and 413 missing.

Newberry, JOHN STRONG, geologist; born in Windsor, Conn., Dec. 22, 1822; graduated at the Western Reserve College in 1846, and at the Cleveland Medical College in 1848; practised medicine in Cleveland in 1851–55; and was engaged in geological exploring expeditions under the government in the West in 1855–61. In September, 1861, he was appointed secretary of the Western Department of the UNITED STATES SANITARY COMMISSION (*q. v.*). His district included the whole valley of the Mississippi. He served in this capacity until July, 1866, and during this period disbursed more than $800,000 in cash; placed supplies in the various hospitals to the value of over $5,000,000; and ministered to the necessities and comfort of more than 1,000,000 soldiers. In 1866–92 he was Professor of Geology and Paleontology in Columbia University, in which he established a museum of over 100,000 specimens, most of which he collected himself. His publications include *Reports of Explorations and Surveys to ascertain the most Practical and Economical Route for a Railroad from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean, made in 1853–56; Report upon the Colorado River of the West Explored in 1857–58; Report of the Exploring Expedition from Santa Fé to the Junction of the Grand and Green Rivers,* etc. He died in New Haven, Conn., Dec. 7, 1892.

Newburg Addresses, THE. The Continental army was cantoned in huts near Newburg, N. Y., in the winter and spring of 1783, while negotiations for peace were

in progress. Washington's headquarters were in the Hasbrouck House, in Newburg. In the latter part of the winter the discontent in the army on account of the arrears in their pay, which had existed a long time, was more formidable than ever. In December previous the officers had sent a memorial to the Congress, by the hands of General McDougall, the head of a committee, asking for a satisfactory adjustment of all the matters which were causing wide-spread discontent. Congress was almost powerless to move satisfactorily in the matter. On March 11, a well-written address was circulated through the American camp, which, in effect, advised the army to take matters into their own hands, and to make demonstrations that should arouse the fears of the people and of the Congress, and thereby obtain justice for themselves. The address was anonymous, but circumstances created a suspicion that General Gates and some other officers were the instigators of the scheme. With this address was privately circulated a notification of a meeting of officers at a large building called "the Temple."



"THE TEMPLE," NEWBURG.

Washington's attention was called to the matter on the day the addresses were circulated, and he determined to guide and control the movement. He referred to it in general orders the next morning; expressed his disapprobation of the whole proceedings as disorderly; and requested the general and field officers, with one officer from every company in the army, to meet at "New Building" (the Temple) on March 15, and requested General Gates, the senior officer, to preside. On the appearance of the order, the writer of the anonymous address issued another, more subdued in tone, in which he tried to give the impression that Washington approved the scheme, the time of meeting being changed. The meeting was fully attended, and deep solemnity pervaded the assembly when Washington stepped upon the platform to read an address which he had prepared for the occasion. As he put on his spectacles, he said, "You see, gentlemen, that I have not only grown *gray*, but *blind*, in your service."

This simple remark, under the circumstances, had a powerful effect upon the assemblage. His address was compact, patriotic, clear in expression and meaning, mild yet severe in its rebuke, and withal vitally important in its relations to the well-being of the infant republic as well as the army. When it was concluded, Washington retired and left the officers to discuss the subject unrestrained by his presence. Their conference was brief. They passed resolutions, by unanimous vote, thanking the commander-in-chief for the wise course he had pursued; expressing their undiminished attachment to their country; their unshaken confidence

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT NEWBURG.

in the good faith of Congress; and their determination to bear with patience their grievances until, in due time, they should be redressed. The proceedings were signed by General Gates, as president of the meeting, and three days afterwards Washington, in general orders, expressed his entire satisfaction. The author of the "Newburg Addresses" was MAJ. JOHN ARMSTRONG (*q. v.*). See WASHINGTON AND THE NEWBURG ADDRESS.

Newcomb, SIMON, astronomer; born in Wallace, N. S., March 12, 1835; was educated privately; came to the United States in 1853; appointed computer on the

SIMON NEWCOMB.

Nautical Almanac in 1857; graduated at the Lawrence Scientific School of Harvard College in 1858; and was appointed Professor of Mathematics in the United States navy in 1861, and assigned to duty in the Naval Observatory. In 1894 he also became Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in Johns Hopkins University. Professor Newcomb is a member of many American and foreign scientific societies, and has received the Copley, the Royal Society, the Huygens, and the Bruce medals. He is an officer of the Legion of Honor, and the only American since Benjamin Franklin who has become an associate of the Institute of France. For many years he has been editor-in-chief of *The American Journal of Mathematics.* He has made numerous astronomical discoveries, which he has published in more than 100 papers. His publications include *A Plain Man's Talk on the Labor Question; Principles of Political Economy,* etc.

Newell, FREDERICK HAYNES, scientist; born in Bradford, Pa., March 5, 1862; graduated at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1885; elected secretary of the National Geographical Society in 1892 and 1897, and of the American Forestry Association in 1895. He is the author of *Agriculture by Irrigation; Hydrography of the United States; The Public Lands of the United States,* etc.

Newell, ROBERT HENRY, humorist; born in New York City, Dec. 13, 1836; was connected with the New York *Mercury,* New York *World,* etc., for many years. He was best known under the *nom de plume* Orpheus C. Kerr, under which name he published a large number of humorous letters on the Civil War. He died in Brooklyn, N. Y., early in July, 1901, his body being found some days after his death.

Newell, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, physician; born in Franklin, O., Sept. 5, 1817; graduated at Rutgers College in 1836. In 1847–49 and 1865–67 he was a member of Congress; in 1848 originated the United States life-saving service (see LIFE-SAVING SERVICE, UNITED STATES); and subsequently originated the Delaware breakwater, the United States agricultural bureau, and the purchase of the Mount Vernon estate for agricultural purposes. He was governor of New Jersey in 1857–59; superintendent of the life-saving service in 1860–64; an unsuccessful candidate for governor of New Jersey in 1876, being defeated by Gen. G. B. McClellan; governor of Washington Territory in 1876–80; and was appointed a United States Indian inspector in 1884. He died in Allentown, N. J., Aug. 8, 1901.

Newfoundland. In 1504 some adventurous French fishermen of Normandy and other coast provinces of France prosecuted their vocation off the shores of Newfoundland, in the first French vessels that ever appeared there. Sir Humphrey Gilbert

arrived at St. John's Harbor, Aug. 3, 1583, where he found thirty-six vessels belonging to various nations. Pitching his tent on shore in sight of all the vessels, he summoned the merchants and masters to assemble on the shore. He had brought 260 men from England, in two ships and three barks, to make a settlement on that island. Being assembled, Gilbert read his commission (which was interpreted to the foreigners), when a twig and piece of turf were presented to him. Then he made proclamation that, by virtue of his commission from Queen Elizabeth, he took possession of the harbor of St. John, and 200 leagues around it each way, for the crown of England. He asserted eminent domain, and that all who should come there should be subject to the laws of England. When the reading of the proclamation was finished, obedience was promised by the general voice. Near the spot a pillar was erected, on which the arms of England, engraved in lead, were affixed. This formal possession was taken in consequence of the discovery of the island by Cabot in 1498.

On April 27, 1610, a patent was granted to the Earl of Northampton, Lord Chief Baron Tanfuld, Sir Francis Bacon, then solicitor-general, and other gentlemen of distinction, and some Bristol merchants, for a part of the island of Newfoundland. There were forty-four persons named in the charter, and the company was named "The Treasurer and Company of Adventurers and Planters of the Cities of London and Bristol for the Colony and Plantation in Newfoundland." John Guy, of Bristol, was soon sent out with a colony of thirty-nine persons to Newfoundland, and began a settlement at Conception Bay. The domain lay between lat. 46° and 52° N., together with the seas and islands lying within 10 leagues of the coast.

Newman, Albert Henry, educator; born in Edgefield county, S. C., Aug. 25, 1852; graduated at Mercer University, Macon, Ga., in 1871, and at Rochester Theological Seminary in 1875. He was acting Professor of Church History at Pettingill in 1877–80; Professor of the same at Rochester Theological Seminary in 1880–81; and was called to the similar chair at McMaster University, Toronto, Canada. His publications include *The Baptist Churches in the United States; History of Anti-Pedo-baptism to A.D. 1609; Manual of Church History;* and several translations, besides contributions to Baptist periodicals.

Newman, Francis, statesman; born in England; removed to New Hampshire in 1638; and later settled in New Haven, where he became secretary of Theophilus Eaton, the first governor of Connecticut. He was with the party sent to New Netherland on a visit to Gov. Peter Stuyvesant in 1653 for the purpose of securing an indemnity for the Dutch encroachments upon New Haven. In 1654–58 he was a commissioner of the consolidated colonies; and in 1658–60 was governor. He died in New Haven, Conn., Nov. 18, 1660.

Newman, John Philip, clergyman; born in New York, Sept. 1, 1823; was educated at Cazenovia Seminary; entered the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church in 1849; travelled in Europe, Palestine, and Egypt in 1860–61; and, returning to the United States, had charges at Hamilton, N. Y., Albany, N. Y., and New York City. In 1864–69 he organized three annual conferences, two colleges, a religious paper; and in the latter year became pastor of the Metropolitan Methodist Episcopal Church in Washington, D. C.; was chaplain of the United States Senate in 1869–74; inspector of United States consulates in Asia in 1874–76. Dr. Newman attended Gen. U. S. Grant in his last illness. In 1888 he was elected a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church. He was author of *From Dan to Beersheba; Thrones and Palaces of Babylon and Nineveh; America for Americans;* and *The Supremacy of Law.* He died in Saratoga, N. Y., July 5, 1899.

Newmarket (Va.), Battle of. At this place General Sigel, with about 10,000 National troops, was defeated, May 15, 1864, by General Breckinridge, with an equal force.

Newnan, Daniel, military officer; born in North Carolina about 1780; was appointed a second lieutenant in the 4th United States Infantry in March, 1799; led the Georgia Volunteers against the east Florida Indians in 1812; served with distinction against the Creek Indians in 1813; and was promoted lieutenant-colonel in December of the latter year. He

held a seat in Congress in 1831–33 as a State's Rights Democrat. He died in Walker county, Ga., Jan. 16, 1851.

Newport, CHRISTOPHER, navigator; born in England about 1565; commanded the first successful expedition for the settlement of Virginia, landing, April 30, 1607, at a place which he named Point Comfort because of his escape from a severe storm. On May 13 he arrived at Jamestown. He had been engaged in an expedition against the Spaniards in the West Indies not long before. He made several voyages to Virginia with emigrants and supplies. Before he returned to England for the last time he joined with Ratcliffe in an attempt to depose Captain Smith from the presidency of the colony. He was defeated, and acknowledged his error. Newport's manuscript work, called *Discoveries in America*, was published in 1860, by Edward Everett Hale, in *Archæologia Americana*.

Newport, CAPTURE OF. Early in December, 1776, a British fleet, with 6,000 troops on board, appeared off Newport,

THE OLD STATE-HOUSE.

R. I. The few troops stationed there evacuated the town without attempting to defend it. Commodore Hopkins had several Continental vessels lying there, with a number of privateers. With these he escaped up the bay, and was effectually blockaded at Providence. When Washington heard of this invasion he sent Generals Arnold and Spencer to the defence of Rhode Island. This possession of Newport, the second town in size and importance in New England, produced general alarm and great annoyance to the inhabitants east of the Hudson.

French Fleet and Army Blockaded.—Washington had hoped the French army, which arrived at Newport, July 10, would march to the Hudson River, and, with their assistance, expected to drive the British from the city of New York. But it was compelled to stand on the defensive there. Six British ships-of-the-line, which had followed the French fleet across the Atlantic, soon afterwards arrived at New York. Having there a naval superiority, Sir Henry Clinton embarked (July 27) 6,000 men for the purpose of assailing the French, without waiting for them to attack. The French, perceiving this, cast up fortifications and prepared for a vigorous defence. The militia of Connecticut and Massachusetts marched to their assistance, and Washington crossed the Hudson into Westchester county and threatened New York. As Clinton and Admiral Arbuthnot could not agree upon a plan of operations, the troops were disembarked; but the fleet proceeded to blockade the French ships in Newport Harbor. The French army felt compelled to stay for the protection of the vessels. News presently came that the second division of French forces was blockaded at Brest by another British fleet. So the French, instead of being an assistance to the Americans at that time, became a burden, for 3,500 American militia were kept under arms at Newport to protect the French ships. Thus a third time an attempt at French co-operation proved a failure.

The Old Tower.—This structure is of unhewn stone, laid in mortar composed of the sand and gravel of the soil around it and oyster-shell lime. It is a cylinder 23 feet in diameter and 24 feet in height, resting upon arches supported by eight columns. It was originally covered with stucco within and without, and on digging to the foundation-stones of one of the supporting columns many years ago, they were found to be composed of hewn spheres. This structure is a hard nut for antiquaries and historians to crack. Some

regard it as a Scandinavian structure of great antiquity, and others as a windmill built by some of the early colonists of Rhode Island. Gov. Benedict Arnold

OLD STONE TOWER, NEWPORT.

speaks of it in his will (1677) as his "stone-built windmill." Peter Easton, another early settler, says in his diary for 1663: "This year we built our first windmill." Easton built it himself of wood, and for his enterprise he was rewarded by the colony with a strip of land on the ocean front, known as Easton's Beach. Such a novel structure as this tower, if built for a windmill, would have received more than a local notice. No chronicler of the day refers to it, nor is it mentioned as being there when the settlers first seated themselves on the island. It was a very inconvenient structure for a windmill, for it was evidently all left open below the arches, with a floor and three windows above them. The idea that it was originally built for a windmill is discarded by many intelligent persons who have examined it, and contemplate the condition of the early colonists of Rhode Island. When and by whom was it built? is a question that will probably remain unanswered, satisfactorily, forever. See NORTHMEN.

Newport News, a strategic point on the James River, not far from Hampton Roads. It was originally a compound word, derived, it is believed, from the names of Captain Newport (who commanded the first vessel that conveyed English emigrants to Virginia) and Sir William Newce, who, at the time George Sandys was appointed treasurer of the colony, received the appointment of marshal of Virginia. Captain Smith wrote his name *Nuse.* Newport News is now an important railroad terminus, ship-building point, and commercial port. Population in 1890, 4,449; in 1900, 19,635.

Newspapers. The first periodicals appeared in the United States at the beginning of the eighteenth century. The pioneer was called *Public Occurrences,* and was issued in Boston in September, 1690. It was so radically democratic and outspoken that it was smothered by the magistrates on the day of its birth. The first permanent newspaper was the *Boston News-Letter,* issued in April, 1704. With it newspaper reporting began. In the report of the execution of six pirates, the speeches, prayers, etc., were "printed as near as it could be taken in writing in the great crowd."

The dates of the first issuing of newspapers in the original thirteen States are as follows: In Massachusetts, 1704; Pennsylvania, 1719; New York, 1725; Maryland, 1728; South Carolina, 1732 (the first newspaper issued south of the Potomac); Rhode Island, 1732; Virginia, 1736; Connecticut, 1755; North Carolina, 1755; New Hampshire, 1756; Delaware, 1761. The first daily newspaper was the *Pennsylvania Packet, or General Advertiser,* published by John Dunlap, in 1784, and afterwards called the *Daily Advertiser.* The number of newspapers in 1775 was only thirty-four, with a total weekly circulation of 5,000 copies. In 1833 the first of the cheap or "penny" papers was issued in New York by Benjamin H. Day. It was called the *Sun,* and immediately acquired an enormous circulation. It was at first less than a foot square. In 1901 the total number of newspapers and periodicals in the United States was 20,879, comprising 2,158 dailies, 49 tri-weeklies, 472 semi-weeklies, 14,827 weeklies, 2 tri-monthlies, 60 bi-weeklies, 275 semi-monthlies, 2,791 monthlies, 2 semi-quarterlies, 68 bi-monthlies, and 175 quarterlies.

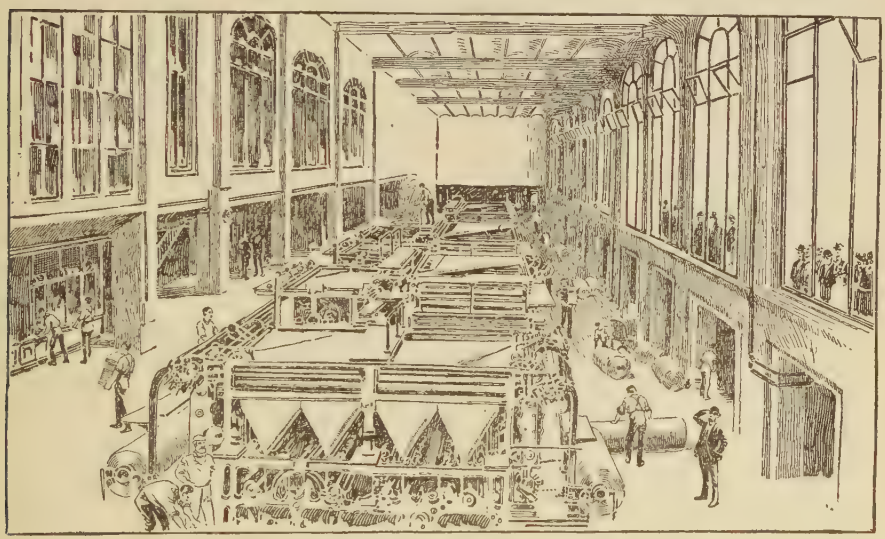
American vs. Foreign Newspapers.—Edwin L. Godkin, for many years editor of the New York *Evening Post* and *The Nation,* contributes the following comparison of the American and foreign news-

paper press and résumé of the development of modern journalism:

It is now more than fifty years since Tocqueville compared a newspaper to a man standing at an open window and bawling to passers-by in the street. Down to his time the newspaper press in all countries in Europe, and almost down to his time in America, was looked upon as simply, or mainly, an ill-informed and often malignant critic of the government. The fearless and independent press of our great-grandfathers was a press that exposed the shortcomings of men in power in a style in which De Foe and Junius set the fashion. The ideal editor of those days was a man who expected to be locked up on account of the boldness of his invectives against the government, but did not mind it. His news-gathering was so subordinate to his criticism that he was hardly thought of as a news-gatherer. Tocqueville's man bawling out of the window was not bawling out the latest intelligence. He was bawling about the blunders and corruption of the ministry, and showing them the way to manage the public business, but at the same time making the management of the public business difficult by spreading discontent and suspicion among the people. Crabbe, in his poem, *The Newspaper*, produced in 1784, scourges the weekly journals of the day for their assiduity in collecting gossip and scandal, but his severest satire is reserved for their comments and criticism. "Blind themselves," he says,

> "these erring guides hold out
> Alluring lights to lead us far about."

Since that time a great change has come over the relation of the press to the public. The news-gathering function, which the American press was the first to bring into prominence, has become the most important one, and the critical function has relatively declined. But the most momentous alteration in the position of the newspaper press has been wrought by the increase in the number of readers. Since 1848 every country in the civilized world has been devoting itself to the work of popular education, with the result of increasing tenfold the number of persons knowing how to read and write and cipher, but knowing very little more. Contemporaneously with this has been the improvement in the means of travel and of transmitting intelligence, thus literally



PRESS-ROOM OF A MODERN NEWSPAPER.

making news-gathering a new and important calling. What was at the beginning of this century the occupation of gossips in taverns and at street corners, had by the middle of the century risen to the rank of a new industry, requiring large capital and a huge plant. We read a great deal about the wonderful growth of the woollen and cotton manufacture since the application of steam to the power-loom and the spinning-jenny; but it is safe to say that these things, could they have foreseen them, would not have amazed Burke and Johnson nearly as much as the conversion of "news," as they understood it, into the raw material of such factories as the great newspaper offices of our day. That "coffee-house babble" could ever be made to yield huge dividends and build up great fortunes is something they would have refused to believe.

Of course, this development of news-gathering side by side with the criticism and comment took place with different degrees of rapidity in different countries. The news-gathering grew in the direct ratio of the spread of the reading art and of the extension of the suffrage, and, therefore, grew more rapidly in the United States than anywhere else. Every man conducts his business under the influence of some one dominating theory as to what will prove most profitable. Accordingly, newspaper publishers early made their choice between the "leading article" and the news-letter as means of pushing their fortunes by extending their circulation. Few or none attached the same importance to both. As a general rule, the American publisher devoted himself to news, and the European to criticism or comment. The former found a much larger public which wanted news, and cared comparatively little for criticism or literary form; the latter found his account in catering for a smaller public, and one more exacting in the matter of taste. The spread of the reading art in America was far more rapid from the beginning than in Europe, and brought into the market at a very early period in the history of the newspaper a body of readers who enjoyed seeing in print all the local gossip—collected, however, from a much wider area—which they used to hear at the tavern, the store, and the church door. European countries have been nearly 100 years behind the United States in the production of this class of readers and in the provision of newspapers for their entertainment. In fact, it is only within the last thirty years that they have appeared in very considerable numbers in England, and they can hardly be said to have appeared yet in France, Germany, or Italy.

This difference in conditions has gone far to determine the difference in the place accorded in the two hemispheres to the "editorial article." In spite of the influence achieved by the London *Times* through this species of composition, and the great excellence which editorial writing has since attained in other English journals, France—and for this purpose France means Paris—must be considered its favorite habitat, the country in which it has carried the most weight, secured the largest amount of talent, and had the most care bestowed upon it. French journals, even now, can hardly be called newspapers in the American sense at all. In the earlier period, between the Restoration and 1848, they did even less in the way of gathering news than they do now. In fact, the idea of news-gathering as a business, or of the importance from a commercial point of view of having news accurate, has not to this day entered the journalistic mind in France. The French reporter or correspondent not only strays from accuracy—our own do a great deal of this—but he sees no reason to be ashamed of it. In the war of 1870 the letters from the scene of operations printed in the Paris newspapers were to a large extent as pure romance as the *feuilleton*, and one of the tasks which the moralists of the period used to perform was calling the attention of the correspondents to the greater seriousness and regard for truth which their English brethren brought to their work. But they made little or no impression, and the reason was, in the main, that the French newspaper reader cares comparatively little for the news, and cares a great deal for the finish, or sprightliness, or drollery, as the case may be, of the editorial article. Men like Armand Carrel, Marc Girardin, Thiers, and Guizot, who either wielded great influence or rose into po-

litical power through journalism under the Restoration and the Monarchy of July, owed nothing whatever to what we call journalistic enterprise. They won fame as editorial writers simply.

There could hardly be a more striking illustration of the fondness of the French public for editorial writing than the place which John Lemoine held for over thirty years in French esteem, owing to his articles in the *Journal des Débats*. It is no injustice to say that their merit lies mainly in their style. His original contributions to the political thought of his time were of but small importance, if, indeed, of any importance. But his elegance, his polish, the balance of his periods, the care and gravity and judicial-mindedness with which he states his case and extracts the wisdom of the occasion, furnished a rare æsthetic treat every morning, or three or four mornings in the week, to two generations of Frenchmen. No such eminence has been achieved by a journalist in any other country, and he is in the French mind the type of the journalist in the best sense of that term.

Of course, there are in Paris as great varieties of journalists as among ourselves; but they all try to achieve success by means of editorial writing of some kind, and not by news-gathering. This accounts for the facility with which new papers are started in Paris, and the great success which they sometimes achieve with hardly any investment of capital. The proprietors do not contemplate the collection of news as any part of the enterprise, and consequently have not to provide for the cost of telegraphing and reporting. They rely for their success on a leading article of some sort, or on the *feuilleton*, or on the theatrical and art criticisms. The stories which Parisian journalists tell each other in their cafés are not of their prowess as reporters, but of the sensation they have made and the increase in circulation they have achieved by some sort of editorial comment or critique; the American passion for and glory in "beats"—meaning superiority over rivals in getting hold of news—they do not understand, or thoroughly despise.

In England the equilibrium between the two functions of the newspaper has been fairly maintained, owing to the peculiar circumstances of the country. Its great foreign trade and its large colonial possessions have, ever since the newspaper took its rise, given early and accurate intelligence a great commercial value, and the proprietors of leading journals have from the first carefully cultivated it. The story of Rothschild laying the foundation of his great fortune by being the first to reach London with the news of Waterloo is an illustration of the importance which reliable foreign intelligence has had, ever since the beginning of the nineteenth century, for the British mercantile men and politicians. What is going on abroad all over the world is of more importance in London than in any other place on earth, and it is fully as important for commercial purposes that the news should be accurate as that it should be early. The *Times*, therefore, which has furnished British journalism with its model, has, from the first, cultivated accuracy with great care, and with corresponding gain in weight and authority. In truth, this authority was never seriously shaken or impaired until the Pigott affair.

The rôle of the American press in the growth of journalism has been distinctly the development of news-gathering as a business, leaving to the work of comment only a subordinate place, and, in fact, one might say a comparatively insignificant one. In American newspapers, too, the field in which news may be found has been greatly enlarged; a much larger class of facts is drawn on for letters and despatches. News in the journalistic sense has never been clearly defined. Taken literally, news is everything that a man has not already heard; but no journal undertakes to supply him with news of this sort. The line has to be drawn somewhere between news which may be usefully and legitimately served up to him on his breakfast-table, and news which would either do him no good or to which he has no fair claim. When enterprise and business competition are allowed to trace this line without the control of either law or morality, it is sure to have as many zigzags in it as there are journals, and it is equally sure that the commercial result will largely determine the question of legitimacy in the public eye. In a commercial country, it is inevitable

that the acquisition of money should be the generally recognized, as it is the most easily recognized, sign of success. As a consequence of this, the modes of acquiring it which only offend against taste or discretion, and are not legally criminal, are treated with considerable indulgence, or even, in some cases, call forth admiration. Nothing is more unreasonable, in truth, than the impatience of the American public with the excesses of the news-gathering department of American journalism, considering the enormous rewards in money, and even in social consideration, which it pays and has paid to those who work this field with least regard to the conventions.

There has been from time to time considerable discussion as to whether newspapers are literature, as if the term literature could be properly confined to writings possessing the qualities of permanence and of artistic finish. Unhappily, literature is whatever large bodies of people read. Newspapers may be bad literature, but literature they are. The hold they have taken, and are taking, as the reading matter of the bulk of the population in all the more highly civilized countries of the world, is one of the most serious facts of our time. It is not too much to say that they are, and have been for the last half-century, exerting more influence on the popular mind and the popular morals than either the pulpit or the book press has exerted in 500 years. They are now shaping the social and political world of the twentieth century. The new generation which the public schools are pouring out in tens of millions is getting its tastes, opinions, and standards from them, and what sort of world this will produce 100 years hence nobody knows.

One of the most important peculiarities of newspapers is that but very few who read them much ever read anything else. The notion that a confirmed newspaper-reader can turn to books whenever he pleases, or that the newspaper-reading as a general rule forms a taste for any book-reading, except perhaps novels, finds little support in observed facts. The power of continuous attention which book-reading calls for—attention of the eye as well as the mind—is acquired, like the power of protracted bodily exertion of any kind, by continual training, ending in the formation of habit. Anybody who neglects it in youth, or lays it aside for a considerable period at any time of life, finds it all but impossible to take it up again. The busy man who eschews literature, or postpones culture, until he retires from active industry, usually finds book-reading the most potent soporific he can turn to. Now, nothing can be more damaging to the habit of continuous attention than newspaper-reading. One of its attractions to the indolent man or woman, or the man or woman who has had little or no mental training, is that it never requires the mind to be fixed on any topic more than three or four minutes, and that every topic furnishes a complete change of scene. The result for the habitual newspaper-reader is a mental desultoriness, which ends by making a book on any one subject more or less repulsive. So that the kind of reading newspapers lead up to, for those who wish for more substantial mental food, is, at most, books or periodicals made up of short essays, which will not keep the attention strained for more than half an hour at most.

This view of the effect of newspaper reading is not weakened by anything we know of the increase in the number of books and book-readers which we see all over the world. The number of books, serious as well as light, undoubtedly increases rapidly, and so does the number of those who read them; but they do not increase in anything like the same ratio as the number of newspaper-readers. They form a constantly diminishing proportion of the reading population of all the great nations, and their immediate influence on politics and society is undergoing the same relative decline. Even books of far-reaching sociological interest, like Darwin's, or Spencer's, or Mill's, have to undergo a prolonged filtration through the newspaper press before they begin to affect popular thought or action. In this interval it is by no means the philosophers and men of science who always command the most respectful hearing. The editor may crow over them daily for years, and carry his readers with him, before their authority is finally recognized as paramount. Some curious illustrations of this

have been furnished by our own currency and silver discussions, in which the newspapers had their own way, and the "bookmen" were objects of general contempt for some time before the hard facts of human experience were able to reach the masses.

Side by side with this segregation of the newspaper-reader from the book-reader, there has grown up a deep and increasing scorn on the part of the book-reader and book-maker for the man who reads nothing but the newspapers, and gets his facts and opinions from them. This is true to-day of every civilized country. Go into a circle of scientific or cultivated men in any field, in America, or France, or Germany, or Italy, and you will have the mental food which the newspapers supply to the bulk of the population treated with ridicule and contempt, the authority of a newspaper as a joke, and journalism used as a synonym for shallowness, ignorance, and blundering. What the journalists oppose to all this is usually accounts of their prodigious circulation and large pecuniary receipts, and their close contact with the practical business of life. But this mutual hostility of the two agencies which most powerfully affect popular thought, and shape the conduct of both nations and men, cannot but be regarded with great concern. Their reconciliation—that is, the conversion of the newspaper into a better channel of communication to the masses of the best thought and most accurate knowledge of the time—is one of the problems, and perhaps the most serious one, that the coming century will have to solve.

It would be very difficult to forecast now the precise manner in which this problem will be attacked, or the exact kind of society or government which the newspaper, as we know it, will, if it be not transformed, end by creating. It would, perhaps, be going too far to ascribe to newspapers the place in shaping national character which Fletcher of Saltoun ascribed to singers in that much-hackneyed saying of his. We cannot say, "Let me make the newspapers of a country and I do not care who makes its laws." But that newspapers have an increasing influence on legislation, and that legislation affects manners and ideas, there can be no question. Our society is, however, acted on by so many agencies that he would be a bold man who should as yet undertake to calculate closely the effects of any one of them.

Newton, HUBERT ANSON, astronomer; born in Sherburne, N. Y., March 19, 1830; graduated at Yale College in 1850; took post-graduate course in higher mathematics; became instructor in Yale in 1853; and was Professor of Mathematics there from 1855 till his death, Aug. 30, 1896. He achieved a high reputation by his discoveries respecting the laws of comets and meteorids and their connection. In 1833 Professor Olmsted announced the hypothesis that the meteors were part of a line of bodies revolving around the sun in a fixed orbit. To the development of this theory Professor Newton gave the greater part of his life. Of fifty-six publications up to 1893, twenty-nine treat of this and closely allied subjects. He also published papers on life insurance and statistics on the metric systems; articles on meteors in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* and *Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia;* definitions in astronomy and mathematics in the *International Dictionary;* etc. He also was an editor of *The American Journal of Science.* He died in New Haven, Conn., Aug. 12, 1896.

Newton, ISAAC, agriculturist; born in Burlington county, N. J., March 31, 1800; was the projector of the national department of agriculture. When the bureau of agriculture was established in 1862, President Lincoln offered the commissionership to Mr. Newton. He held the office until his death, in Washington, D. C., June 19, 1867.

Newton, JOHN, military engineer; born in Norfolk, Va., Aug. 24, 1823; graduated at the United States Military Academy and appointed assistant Professor of Engineering there with the rank of second lieutenant in 1842. Later he served in the building of fortifications and other extensive works along the shores of the Atlantic and the Gulf, and was chief engineer of the Utah expedition. At the beginning of the Civil War he was chief engineer of the Department of Pennsylvania. From August, 1861, till March, 1862, he was engaged in constructing de-

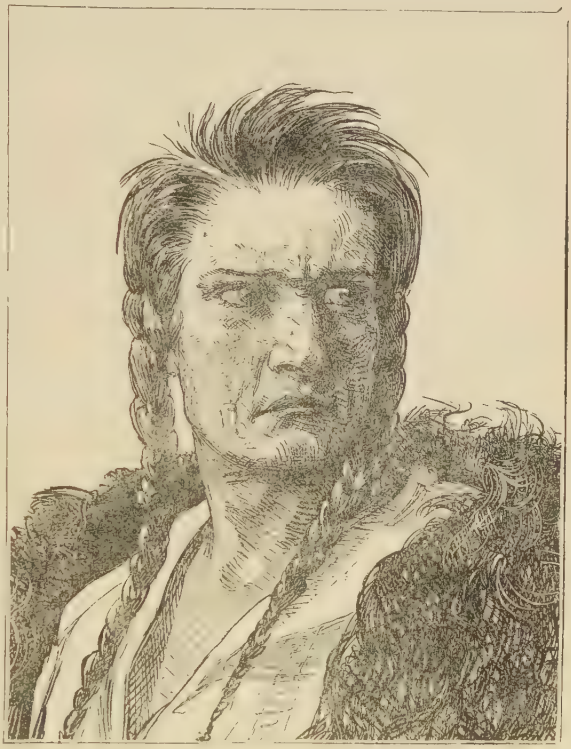
fensive works at the national capital. He was commissioned a brigadier-general of volunteers, Sept. 23, 1861, and was promoted major-general, March 30, 1863. For distinguished services in the battle of Gettysburg he was brevetted colonel U. S. A., and later brigadier-general. During the war he also took part in the engagements at West Point, Gaines's Mill, and Glendale; in the forcing of Crampton's Gap, in the battles of Antietam, and the storming of Marye's Heights at the battle of Fredericksburg. He is most popularly known as the engineer who removed the dangerous rocks at Hell Gate, New York Harbor. This achievement required the invention of new machinery and the solution of new engineering problems. On Sept. 24, 1876, he blew up Hallett's Reef, and on Oct. 10, 1885, Flood Rock. On March 6, 1884, he was promoted chief of engineers, with the rank of brigadier-general, and held the post till his retirement, Aug. 27, 1886. General Newton was commissioner of public works in New York City in 1887–88. He died in New York City, May 1, 1895.

Newton, John Thomas, naval officer; born in Alexandria, Va., May 20, 1793; joined the navy as midshipman in 1809. During the engagement between the *Hornet* and *Peacock,* on Feb. 24, 1813, he was acting lieutenant on the former vessel. He was first lieutenant on the same ship in her engagement with the *Penguin;* superintendent of the Pensacola navy-yard in 1848–52; flag-officer of the home squadron in 1852–55; and commandant of the Portsmouth navy-yard in 1855–57. He died in Washington, D. C., July 28, 1857.

Nez Percé Indians, a family of the Sahaptin nation which derived their name, given by the Canadians, it is said, from a practice of piercing their noses for the introduction of a shell ornament. Lewis and Clarke passed through their country in their explorations early in the nineteenth century, and made a treaty of peace, which they kept inviolate for full fifty years. They had a fine grazing country on the Clearwater and Lewis rivers, in the Territories of Idaho and Washington, and their number was estimated at 8,000. In 1836 missions and schools were established among them by the American board of missions, and efforts were made to induce them to till the ground and have an organized government. They were then about 4,000 strong. But they preferred to live in the heathen state, and, as late as 1857, they had only fifty acres under cultivation. The mission was suspended in 1847, after the murder of the Rev. Mr. Whitman by a band of another tribe of Sahaptins. In the Indian war in Oregon, in 1855, the Nez Percés were friends of the white people, and saved the lives of Governor Stevens and others. A treaty had been made the year before for ceding their lands and placing them on a reservation, but a part of the tribe would not consent, and remained in their own beautiful country. By the terms of this treaty (1854) a part of the Nez Percés went on their reservation; the others hunted buffaloes and fought the Sioux. Finally, those on the reservation were disturbed by gold-seekers. The advent of these men was followed by the introduction of intoxicating liquors, and a general demoralization ensued.

For some years the great body of the Nez Percé Indians had been on the Lapwai reservation, in the northwestern part of Idaho. Chief Joseph, who had about 500 Indians as his following, had long laid claim to the boundaries as established by the treaty of 1855, more especially to that country west of Snake River in Oregon and the Wallowa Valley. These Indians had never made their homes in this valley, although they contended that it was theirs. President Grant conceded it to them in his executive order of June 16, 1873, but on June 10, 1875, this order was revoked, and all that part of Oregon west of the Snake River, embracing the Wallowa Valley, was restored to the public domain. General Howard in his work, *Nez Percé Joseph,* does not think the real cause of the Indian war "came from the reduction of the reserve, nor from the immediate contact with immigrants, and the quarrels that sprung therefrom. These, without doubt, aggravated the difficulty. The main cause lies back of ideas of rightful ownership, back of savage habits and instincts; it lies in the natural and persistent resistance of independent nations to the authority of other nations. Indian Joseph and his malcontents denied the jurisdiction of the

United States over them. They were offered everything they wanted if they would simply submit to the authority and government of the United States agents." To return to the revocation, it is not wholly clear who, besides Governor Davis, of Oregon, was responsible for it. However, in the early part of 1877 the United States decided to have Chief Joseph and his followers removed from the Wallowa to the reservation in Idaho. Orders were issued to Gen. O. O. Howard "to occupy Wallowa Valley in the interest of peace," and that distinguished and humane soldier endeavored to induce Joseph to comply with the plans of the government. On May 21 General Howard reported that he had had a conference with Joseph and other chiefs on May 19, and that "they yielded a constrained compliance with the orders of the government, and had been allowed thirty days to gather in their people, stock, etc." On June 14 the Indians under Joseph from Wallowa, White Bird from Salmon River, and Looking-glass from Clearwater, assembled near Cottonwood Creek, in apparent compliance with their promise, when General Howard, who was at Fort Lapwai, heard that four white men had been murdered on John Day's Creek by some Nez Percés, and that White Bird had announced that he would not go on the reservation. Other murders were reported. General Howard despatched two cavalry companies, with ninety-nine men, under Captain Perry, to the scene, who found the Indian camp at White Bird Cañon, and on June 17 made an unsuccessful attack, with the loss of one lieutenant and thirty-three men. General Howard then took the field in person with 400 men, and on July 11 discovered the Indians in a deep ravine on the Clearwater near the mouth of Cottonwood Creek, where he attacked and defeated them, driving them from their position; the Indians lost their camp, much of their provisions, and a number of fighting men. It was on July 17 that the famous re-



CHIEF JOSEPH.

treat of Joseph began, followed by the troops of General Howard.

No parallel is known in the history of the army in the Northwest where such a force of soldiers was longer on the trail of a retreating foe, and where the troops endured such indescribable hardships more bravely. First General Gibbon, who was then in Montana, started in pursuit with a force of less than 200, and came upon the Indians on a branch of the Big Hole or Wisdom River, and attacked them Aug. 9, but was compelled to assume the defensive, as he was greatly outnumbered, and the Indians withdrew the next night. General Howard arrived on Aug. 11, with

a small escort, and resumed the pursuit. On Aug. 20, when he was at Camas Prairie, the Indians turned on him and stampeded and ran off his pack-train, which were partially recovered by his cavalry. The fleeing Indians then traversed some of "the worst trails for man or beast on this continent," as General Sherman described it. Their course may thus be briefly given: The Nez Percés, after leaving Henry's Lake in Montana, passed up the Madison and Fire Hole Basin into the Yellowstone Park, and crossed the divide and the Yellowstone River above the falls and below the lake; then they crossed the Snowy Mountains, and moved down Clark's Fork, with General Howard on a hot trail. On Sept. 13 General Sturgis had a fight with them on the Yellowstone below the mouth of Clark's Fork, capturing hundreds of horses and killing a number of the Indians. Then the Indians crossed the Yellowstone, passed north through the Judith Mountains, and reached the Missouri River near Cow Island on Sept. 22, and the next day they crossed the Missouri and proceeded north to the British possessions, with a view to join the renegade Sioux, with whom Sitting Bull was hiding. General Howard's troops were fearfully worn down by the long pursuit, but steadily followed the fleeing Nez Percés. Howard had meanwhile sent word to Colonel Miles at Tongue River of the movements of the Indians, and that officer started with fresh forces to head off the band. On Sept. 30, he came on them near the mouth of Eagle Creek, had a fight with them, and finally captured the entire band, numbering between 400 and 500 men, women, and children. As the fight was closing General Howard came up with his troops. This ended "one of the most extraordinary Indian wars of which there is any record," said General Sheridan. And he added: "The Indians throughout displayed a courage and skill that elicited universal praise; they abstained from scalping; let captive women go free; did not commit indiscriminate murder of peaceful families, which is usual; and fought with almost scientific skill, using advance and rear guards, skirmish lines, and field fortifications. Nevertheless, they would not settle down on lands set apart for their ample maintenance; and when commanded by proper authority they began resisting by murdering persons in no manner connected with their alleged grievances." After the war and the capture of the hostiles the Nez Percés of Joseph's band were removed to Indian Territory, where they were placed in the Ponca, Pawnee, and Otoe agency. There they were peaceable and industrious; nearly half of them in 1884 were reported members of the Presbyterian Church; they had schools, etc., and were apparently doing well. In May, 1885, they returned to their old home in Idaho and Washington.

Niagara, Fort, a defensive work on the east side of Niagara River, near its mouth. Its building was begun as early as 1673, when La Salle enclosed a small spot there with palisades. In 1687 De Nonville constructed a quadrangular fort there, with four bastions. It was enlarged to quite a strong fortification by the French in 1725.

The plan of the campaign of 1755 (see French and Indian War) contemplated an expedition against Forts Niagara and Frontenac, to be led in person by General Shirley. With his own and Pepperell's regiments, lately enlisted in New England, and some irregulars and Indians drawn from New York, Shirley marched from Albany to Oswego, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario, where he intended to embark for Niagara. It was a tedious march, and he did not reach Oswego until Aug. 21. The troops were then disabled by sickness and discouraged by the news of Braddock's defeat. Shirley's force was 2,500 in number on Sept. 1. He began the erection of two strong forts at Oswego, one on each side of the river. The prevalence of storms, sickness in his camp, and the desertion of a greater part of his Indian allies, caused him to relinquish the design against Niagara; so, leaving a sufficient number of men at Oswego to complete and garrison the forts, he marched the remainder back to Albany, where he arrived Oct. 24.

In 1759, accompanied by Sir William Johnson as his second in command, Gen. John Prideaux collected his forces (chiefly provincial) at Oswego, for an attack on Fort Niagara. The influence of Sir

William made the Six Nations disregard their late treaty of neutrality with the French, and a considerable number joined Prideaux's forces. Sailing from Oswego, the troops reached their destination, and landed, without opposition, on July 7, and immediately began a siege. On the 19th Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a cannon, and the command devolved on Johnson. The garrison, expecting reinforcements from the southern and western French forts, held out for three weeks, when the expected succor appeared (July 24)—1,200 French regulars and an equal number of Indians. Prepared for their reception, Johnson totally routed this relieving force. A large portion of them were made prisoners, and the next day (July 25) the fort and its dependencies, with the garrison of 700 men, were surrendered to the English. This connecting-link of the French military posts between Canada and Louisiana was thus effectually broken, and was never reunited. The encumbrance of prisoners and lack of transportation prevented Johnson from joining Amherst at Montreal, and, after garrisoning Fort Niagara, he returned home.

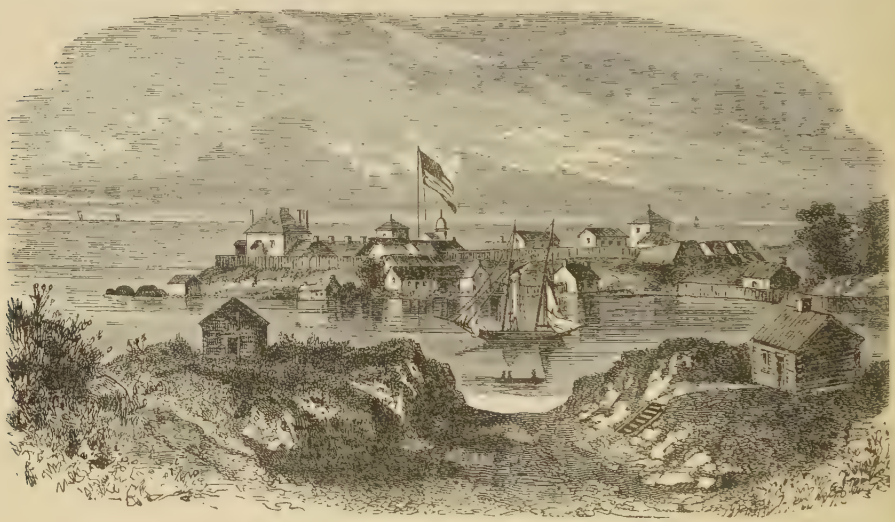
During the Revolutionary War the fort was the rendezvous of British troops, Tories, and Indians, who desolated central New York, and sent predatory bands into Pennsylvania. "Then," says De Veaux, "civilized Europe revelled with savage Americans, and ladies of education and refinement mingled in the society of those whose only distinction was to wield the bloody tomahawk and the scalping-knife. Then the squaws of the forest were raised to eminence, and the most unholy unions between them and officers of highest rank were smiled upon and countenanced." Fort Niagara remained in possession of the British until the frontier posts were given up to the Americans, in 1796.

In 1812 the fort was garrisoned by the Americans, commanded by Lieut.-Col. George McFeely. The British had raised breastworks in front of the village of NEWARK (*q. v.*), opposite the fort, at intervals, all the way up to Fort George, and placed behind them several mortars and a long train of battering cannon. These mortars began a bombardment of Fort Niagara on the morning of Nov. 21, and at the same time a cannonade was opened at Fort George and its vicinity. From dawn until twilight there was a continuous roar of artillery from the line of batteries on the Canada shore; and during the day 2,000 red-hot shot were poured upon the American works. The mortars sent showers of destructive bomb-shells. Buildings in the fort were set on fire several times, and were extinguished by great exertions. Meanwhile the garrison returned the assault gallantly. Newark was set on fire by shells several times; so, also, were buildings in Fort George, and one of its batteries was silenced. Shots from an outwork of Fort Niagara (the Salt Battery) sunk a British sloop in the river. Night ended this furious artillery duel.

Early in October, 1813, General McClure, of the New York militia, was left in command of Fort George, on the Niagara River. In November the startling intelligence reached him from the westward that Lieutenant-General Drummond was approaching with a heavy force of white men and Indians. McClure's garrison was then reduced to sixty effective men, and he determined to abandon the post and cross over to Fort Niagara. The weather became extremely cold, and on Dec. 10 he attempted to blow up the fort while his troops were crossing the river. He also wantonly set on fire the village of Newark, near by, and 150 houses were speedily laid in ashes.

The exasperated British determined on retaliation. They crossed the Niagara River on the night of Dec. 18, about 1,000 strong, regulars and Indians, under Colonel Murray. Gross negligence or positive treachery had exposed the fort to easy capture. It was in command of Captain Leonard. When, at 3 A.M., a British force approached to assail the main gate, it was standing wide open. Leonard had left the fort on the evening before, and spent the night with his family, 3 miles distant. With a competent and faithful commander at his post, the fort, with its garrison of nearly 400 effective men, might have been saved. The fort was entered without resistance, when the occupants of a block-house within and invalids in the barracks made a stout fight for a while. This conflict was over before the

remainder of the garrison were fairly awake, and the fort in the possession of the British. The victory might have been almost bloodless, had not a spirit of revenge, instigated by the black ruins of Newark, prevailed. A large number of the garrison, part of them invalids, were bayonetted after resistance had ceased. This horrid work was performed on Sunday, Dec. 19. The loss of the Americans was eighty killed—many of them hospital patients—fourteen wounded, and 344 made prisoners. The British loss was six men killed, and Colonel Murray, three men, and a surgeon wounded. The British fired a signal-cannon, announcing their success, which put in motion a detachment of regulars and Indians at Queenston for further work of destruction. They crossed the river to Lewiston, and plundered and laid waste the whole New York frontier to Buffalo.



FORT NIAGARA, FROM FORT GEORGE, IN 1812.

In 1814, on the retirement of General Wilkinson, General Brown, who had been promoted to major-general, became commander-in-chief of the Northern Department. He had left French Mills (Feb. 15), on the Salmon River, where the army had wintered, with most of the troops there (2,000 in number), and on reaching Sackett's Harbor received an order from the Secretary of War to march with them to the Niagara frontier, to which line Generals Scott and Ripley had already gone. The object was to recover Fort Niagara, restrain British movements westward, and, if possible, to invade Canada. Brown, however, did not go to that frontier until many weeks afterwards, owing to menaces of the British on the northern border. It was during Brown's suspense that Oswego was attacked and captured. General Scott finally led the army to the Niagara and made his headquarters at Buffalo, where General Brown appeared at the close of June. On the morning of July 3, Generals Scott and Ripley crossed the Niagara River with a considerable force and captured Fort Erie, nearly opposite Black Rock. The garrison withdrew to the intrenched camp of General Riall at Chippewa, a few miles below. The Americans pressed forward, and in the open fields near Chippewa they fought Riall's army (July 5), and drove the British in haste to Burlington Heights (see CHIPPEWA, BATTLE OF). Lieutenant-General Drummond then gathered all available troops and advanced to the Niagara River. He met the Americans near the great cataract of the Niagara, and there, on the evening of July 25, one of the most sanguinary battles of the war

was fought, beginning at sunset and ending at midnight (see LUNDY'S LANE, BATTLE AT). The Americans were left in quiet possession of the field. Brown and Scott were both wounded, and the command devolved on General Ripley, who withdrew to Fort Erie. Drummond again advanced with 5,000 men, and appeared before Fort Erie on Aug. 4 and prepared for a siege. There was almost incessant cannonading from the 7th to the 14th. On the 15th Drummond attempted to carry the place by assault, but was repulsed with heavy loss (see ERIE, FORT). Nearly a month elapsed without much being done, when General Brown, who had resumed the chief command, ordered a sortie from the fort. It was successful (Sept. 17). The Americans pressed the besiegers back towards Chippewa. Informed that General Izard was approaching with reinforcements for Brown, Drummond retired to Fort George. The Americans abandoned and destroyed Fort Erie Nov. 5, crossed the river, and went into winter quarters at Black Rock, Buffalo, and Batavia.

Niagara Peace Mission. See PEACE MISSION.

Niblack, ALBERT PARKER, naval officer; born in Vincennes, Ind., July 25, 1859; graduated at Annapolis in 1880; United States naval attaché at Berlin, Rome, and Vienna; was promoted lieutenant in 1896. He is the author of *Coast Indians of Alaska and Northern British Columbia.*

Niboyer, BAUDOIN SIMON, author; born in Bruges, Belgium, in 1779; accompanied the British forces to the United States in 1812; and witnessed the burning of the White House in Washington, D. C. When peace was concluded he travelled through the Eastern and Northern States. His publications include *History of the War between England and the United States; A Picturesque Journey through the United States of North America; Considerations on the Republican System of the United States compared with the Representative Governments of Europe; The Aristocracy of Europe and America,* etc. He died near Brussels in 1834.

Niça, MARCO DE, explorer. When Coronado was sent northward from Mexico to search for mules, he sent Father Niça in advance with a negro companion. The latter was one of the four men of Narvaez's expedition into Florida who made a perilous journey across the continent. Niça returned to Coronado and announced that he had discovered from a mountain-top seven cities, and that he visited one which was called Cibola. It was garnished with gold and pearls. There, he alleged, his negro companion, whom he had sent before, was murdered by the jealous inhabitants. Coronado, in further explorations, found well-built houses in groups —pueblos—"three or four lofts high, with good lodgings and fair chambers, and ladders instead of stairs." He said the seven cities were within four leagues of each other, and formed the kingdom of Cibola; but he did not find gold and turquoises. Remains of these pueblos are found in the region traversed by Niça and Coronado.

Nicaragua. Baffled in an attempt to revolutionize or seize Cuba, ambitious American politicians turned their attention to Mexico and Central America, coveting regions within the Golden Circle. Their operations first assumed the innocent form of an armed emigration—armed merely for their own protection—and their first theatre was a region on the great isthmus inhabited chiefly by a race of degraded natives. It belonged to the State of Nicaragua, and was known as the Mosquito Coast. It promised to be a territory of great commercial importance. Under the specious pretext that the British were likely to possess it, and appealing to the "Monroe doctrine" (see MONROE, JAMES) for justification, armed citizens of the United States emigrated to that region. Already the guns of the American navy had been heard there as heralds of coming power. The first formidable "emigration" took place in the autumn or early winter of 1854. It was alleged that the native king of the Mosquito country bordering on the Caribbean Sea had granted to two British subjects a large tract of the territory, the British having for some time been trying to get a foothold there, and having induced the half-barbarian chief to assume independence of Nicaragua. By a pretended arrangement with the British settlers there, Col. H. L. Kinney led a band of armed emigrants and proceeded to settle on the territory. The governor of Nicaragua pro-

tested against this invasion by citizens of the United States. The Nicaraguan minister at Washington called the attention of the United States government to the subject, Jan. 16, 1855, and especially to the fact of the British claim to political jurisdiction there, and urged that the United States, while asserting the Monroe doctrine as a correct political dogma, should not sanction the act complained of, as it was done under guarantees of British protection.

The United States government so mildly interfered (as a matter of policy) that the "emigration" movement was allowed to go on and assume more formidable proportions and aspects. An agent of the conspirators named William Walker, who had already, with a few followers, invaded the Mexican state of Sonora from California and been repulsed, now appeared on the scene in connection with Kinney, who invited him to assist in "improving the lands and developing the mineral resources" of his grant on Lake Nicaragua. For that purpose, ostensibly, Walker left San Francisco with 300 men, and arrived on the coast of Nicaragua on June 27, 1855. On the following day he cast off all disguise and attempted to capture the town of Rivas, under an impression that a revolutionary faction there would join him in his scheme of conquest. He was mistaken. He had been joined on his march by 150 Central Americans under General Castellon, but when these saw the Nicaraguan forces coming against them, they deserted Walker. The latter and his followers fled to the coast and escaped in a schooner. Walker reappeared with armed followers on the coast of Nicaragua in August following, and on Sept. 5 the "emigrants" in the Mosquito country, assuming independence, organized civil government there by the election of Kinney as chief magistrate with a council of five assistants. At that time Nicaragua was convulsed by revolution, and the government was weak. Walker, taking advantage of these conditions, had two days before vanquished in battle 400 government troops on Virgin Bay. He captured Granada, the capital of the State, on Oct. 12, and placed General Rivas, a Nicaraguan, in the presidential chair.

Treating Kinney with contempt, Walker drove him from the Mosquito country, and attempted to strengthen his military power by "emigration" from the United States. A British consul recognized the new government of Nicaragua, and the American minister there, John H. Wheeler, gave countenance to the usurpation. These movements in Nicaragua created alarm among the other governments on the isthmus, and in the winter of 1856 they formed an alliance. Early in March, Costa Rica made a formal declaration of war against the usurpers of Nicaragua, and on the 10th of that month, Walker, who was the real head of the state, made a corresponding declaration against Costa Rica. He shamelessly declared that he was there by the invitation of the Liberal party in Nicaragua. War began on March 20, when the Costa Ricans marched into Nicaragua. Walker gained a victory in a battle, April 11, and became extremely arrogant. He levied a forced loan on the people in support of his power. Rivas, becoming disgusted with this "gray-eyed man of destiny," as his admirers called him, left the presidency and proclaimed against Walker. Walker became his successor in office, June 24, and was inaugurated President of Nicaragua on July 12. So the first grand act of a conspiracy against the life of a weak neighbor was accomplished.

The government at Washington hastened to acknowledge the independence of the new nation, and Walker's ambassador, in the person of Vijil, a Roman Catholic priest, was cordially received by President Pierce and his cabinet. So strengthened, Walker ruled with a high hand, and by his interference with trade offended commercial nations. The other Central American states combined against him, and on May 20, 1857, he was compelled to surrender 200 men, the remnant of his army, to Rivas; but by the interference of Commodore Davis, of the United States navy, then on the coast, Walker and a few of his followers were borne away unhurt. But this restless adventurer fitted out another expedition at New Orleans, landed on the Nicaraguan coast, Nov. 25, and was seized by Commodore Paulding, United States navy, Dec. 3, with 230 of his followers, and taken to New York as prisoner. James Buchanan was then

President of the United States. He *privately* commended Paulding's act, but for "prudential reasons," he said, he publicly condemned the commodore in a special message to Congress, Jan. 7, 1858, for thus "violating the sovereignty of a foreign country!" Buchanan set Walker and his followers free, and they traversed the slave-labor States, preaching a new crusade against Central America, and collecting funds for a new invasion. Walker sailed from Mobile on a third expedition, but was arrested off the mouth of the Mississippi River, but only for having left port without a clearance. He was tried at New Orleans by the United States Court and acquitted, when he hastened to Central America, and after making much mischief there, was captured and shot at Truxillo, Sept. 12, 1860.

NICARAGUA CANAL

Nicaragua Canal. THOMAS BRACKETT REED (*q. v.*), who was a member of Congress from 1877 to 1899, and speaker of the House in the Fifty-first, Fifty-fourth, and Fifty-fifth Congresses, contributes the following authoritative description of the plan of the proposed canal and criticism of the same:

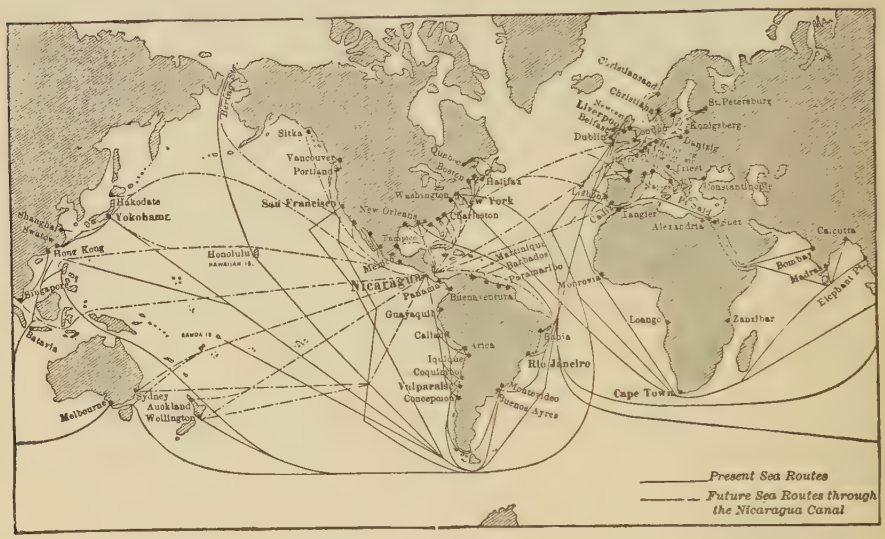
Ever since the time when the bewildered successors of Columbus failed to find the transit to the East, by which they meant to pass by the land they had discovered to reach the far countries of the Orient they originally sought, the isthmus which connects the northern and southern continents of the Western Hemisphere and separates the Atlantic from the Pacific Ocean has been the subject of the deepest interest, and the scene of a wonderful amount of research, considering the difficulties of topography and climate. At first, all were reluctant to surrender the old idea, which had hardened itself into a tradition, with imaginary maps and charts, that, somewhere in the lagoons and tropical forests, was a passage-way already made by nature, which was only waiting the sails of the bold man who should discover or rediscover the highway of nations through which the commerce of two worlds would enrich and satisfy both.

It was soon found, however, that there was no passage made by nature; and Philip II. felt assured that the Lord did not intend the connection to be made between the two oceans. While we have since learned that the intentions of the Deity are not to be lightly assumed, there was certainly in that age a fair chance for argument; for a more closely connected and determined union of hills and peaks can hardly anywhere be found, than in the range which runs from one end to the other of the isthmus, and its immediate connections. Providence certainly did not intend that any world, any less rich than our own, should undertake the work of lifting great ships across the divide which separates the oceans.

All the probable passage-ways have

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF NICARAGUA CANAL AS IT WAS PLANNED

been so far examined, that the world has settled down upon the belief that only two routes can be the scene of the great commerce which is hoped for in the future. One is on the Isthmus of Panama, which is the least in actual distance from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and the other takes its course through the peninsula which



MAP OF THE WORLD SHOWING PROBABLE CHANGES IN TRADE ROUTES BY A NICARAGUA CANAL.

connects the isthmus with the main continent to the north, as it goes widening from Costa Rica to Mexico. One route is 46 miles, and the other between 170 and 180. While there is that great difference in distance to be traversed, the difference in the canals to be excavated is by no means so great. The Panama Canal is all excavation from one end to the other, except 11½ miles of artificial lake, and is 46 miles in length. The Nicaragua route makes use of Lake Nicaragua, an inland sea which was one day connected with the Pacific and was a part of its vast expanse. The landlocked sharks of the lake are living testimonials of the fact. Besides the lake, a long stretch of river can be so utilized that, while the distance on the Nicaragua route is what has been stated, the canal-making will be somewhere between 27 and 35 miles, according to the plan which shall finally be adopted. In addition to the canal-making, the rivers used will have to be dredged and lowered and some parts of them turned aside. The lake will also need dredging in various places.

Perhaps a brief description of the plan of the Maritime Canal Company, and a statement of the points of criticism, would enable us more easily to get a general idea of the state of the enterprise and the conditions of the various plans, so far as they have been indicated.

In the first place, it must be borne in mind that the main avenue of transportation is Lake Nicaragua, at 110 feet above the level of the sea. Of course, the waterline of the lake varies, nobody knows quite how much, but between limits of 12 or 14 feet between 112 feet and 98 feet. This variation, however, does not cover each year but a number of years, and is the extreme variation. The level of 110 feet named in the Menocal plan, or 112 in the Ludlow suggestion, must be maintained all the time; for, while the top of the lake may be lowered from time to time, the bottom cannot be, and the difference between the top and the bottom is where the vessel runs. This level of the lake, at 110 or 112 feet, is the height to which ships must be lifted to cross the altitude between the two oceans. To this

height the ships must be lifted on both sides by locks, and lowered on both sides by the same means. The 110-feet level exists, naturally, only on the lake itself when it is high, and in the upper San Juan, its outflow. This would be only 56 miles of the 170, to which should be added a part of the San Juan River on the eastern side. To increase this distance, whatever it might be, so as to make the level extend for more than 140 miles, Mr. Menocal conceived a plan which was singularly bold and attractive. On the Pacific side, he planned to have the first 9 miles from the lake end in a basin of 5½ miles in length, and a mile in width, created by a tall dam called the La Flor Dam. This would add 14½ miles to the navigation on the 110-feet level. On the Atlantic side, he proposed a dam at Ochoa on the San Juan 64 miles from its source, which is the lake, which would have extended the navigation on the lake level 64 miles more. The dam was to be, or, rather, would have to be, 110 feet high, to which must be added the depth necessary to reach rock bottom, though Menocal contemplated surface dam. At Ochoa, the route was to branch off into the valley of the San Francisco, where, by a dam at the end and by embankments on the sides, another basin was to be created, carrying the lake level 7 miles farther. Adding all these extensions to the 56 miles by which the lake is crossed, it is found that, from La Flor Dam to the end of the San Francisco Basin, there was to be a stretch of 142 miles on the same level, the level of the lake, not a natural varying level, but a permanent one to be created. This 142 miles being taken out, there were left 26 or 27 miles of canal to be made. Of the 27 miles, 11½ were to be on the Pacific side and the rest on the side of Greytown. These figures are not exact, but are sufficiently so for the present purpose. On this plan, a ship from the Pacific, at about half a mile from Brito, was to be lifted by one lock 21 or 29 feet, according to the stage of the tide. Going on this new level 2 miles, the ship would be lifted by two locks which were to adjoin each other 45½ feet by each, and about 90 feet by both, to the Tola Basin, to begin its voyage of 142 miles through Lake Nicaragua and on the San Juan River, down by the Ochoa Dam to and through the San Francisco Basin; then 13 miles through the Eastern Divide, a rock cutting 140 feet in depth, to the Descado Basin; at the end of which the ship was to be lowered 45 feet by a lock, travel 3 miles farther, and then, being lowered 30 feet, go on another mile, drop 31 feet and then, after 19 miles of canal, reach the harbor of Greytown, which was to be made available by whatever expenditure might be necessary. It will be seen, even from this inadequate description, that it was not an exaggeration to call this plan both bold and attractive.

It was attractive, because it gave a long reach of 142 miles, and in many ways seemed to lessen the amount of canal-making and the amount of dredging in the San Juan River. It was bold, because the dams and retaining embankments were, perhaps, without precedent in magnitude of work and in risk of disaster. The dam at La Flor on the Pacific side, and the dam and embankments at Ochoa, together with the embankments of the San Francisco Basin, were well calculated, to use the language of Admiral Walker, "to keep its superintendent awake nights." Especially would this be so on Mr. Menocal's plan, which did not propose to go down to rock formation, but to have "a dam of loose rock," which, Admiral Walker says, "would have to be enormous in size; it would be like moving a hill into the river." Of course, as was afterwards discovered, by going 80 feet below the bottom of the river, a dam could be built 190 feet in full height at a cost as yet unestimated. As for the San Francisco embankment line, General Hains regards it "as the most dangerous matter in connection with the whole project." General Abbott, who, however, represents a rival project, says that "enormous embankments are required in the San Francisco basins. They are sixty-seven in number, and 6 miles in length, and some of them will rise from 60 to 85 feet above soft mud, which must be excavated to a depth of 30 feet to reach a clay foundation." Professor Haupt, a member of the Walker board, says that there are some 8 miles instead of 6 of artificial work along the entire length of the line of the San Francisco Basin.

The canal board, at the head of which

was Gen. William Ludlow, expressed grave doubts, similar to those expressed by the Walker board, as to the risk and possible trouble that would arise under the Menocal plan.

After the canal board, which had neither the time nor the money to make an examination such as was needed, but which certainly brought back most valuable results showing great labor and skill, had made its report, a new board was appointed, consisting of Admiral Walker, Gen. Peter C. Hains, and Prof. Lewis M. Haupt.

This board devoted much time to the investigation of the various engineering phases of the work. General Hains expressed the impression that he would prefer to construct a lock and dam at Machuca Rapids, about 20 miles above Ochoa, and lock down 25 or 30 feet so as to reduce the height of the San Francisco embankments. This would reduce the average height of the San Francisco Basin embankments about 50 per cent., and of the Ochoa Dam about 30 per cent. There is one disadvantage about this plan which General Hains states, which is, that the level at which you leave the San Juan is the level you must maintain across what is called the Eastern Divide, and you must go just so much deeper in your excavation, which would add 25 or 30 feet to the 140 already planned for, making it 165 to 170 feet deep instead of 140. This would be an extra expense, but not at all comparable to risk avoided. The Tola Dam and Basin are also subjects of destructive criticism on the part of both the later boards. General Hains would do away with both and confine the work to a simple canal which, he thinks, presents no difficulties. Professor Haupt seems rather to be in favor of lowering the dam, which would eliminate the basin.

It should be added that various other routes, after leaving Ochoa, are to be considered in the light of these facts and such further investigations as may be found necessary. It may be that, instead of leaving the San Juan at Ochoa, it could be left at Tambour Grande, 10 or 12 miles lower, thus saving all the San Francisco embankment. One other difficulty has got to be met, and undoubtedly will be. The level of Lake Nicaragua must be maintained at 110 or 112 feet, or at some level at all seasons within very narrow limits. That level is the basis of the whole work. Between that level and the bottom of the canal must be space enough for the ship to move at reasonable speed. The lower the top, the lower must be the bottom. If the bottom must be lowered there must be more excavation and more cost. Flood waters must be discharged, evaporation at the rate of 16,000 cubic feet per second in the dry season must be provided for. This is more than the whole discharge of the San Juan. The solution of this problem will help to fix the bottom of the canal, and that will help very materially to fix the price.

The cost of building the canal has been variously estimated. Mr. Menocal made a detailed estimate of $65,000,000. The canal board of 1896 thought it would cost $133,000,000, but, in the testimony of the members before the committee of the House, it was evident that they regarded $150,000,000 as the really safe limit which the constructor should have in view. The report of the canal board announcing the estimate of $133,000,000 was subjected to some criticism by the Maritime Canal Company, the party then in interest, which was advocating a bill which contained the project of Menocal with a loan from the government of the United States. How thoroughly that criticism was met can be seen in the testimony before the House committee, where the canal board, and especially its chairman, then Colonel, afterwards General, Ludlow, showed a complete mastery of the subject, so far as the short time and the small amount of money at their disposal would permit. It is only fair, however, to say that a considerable portion of increased estimate arose from the fact that the canal board felt that the exigencies of the case demanded a more commodious canal than the company contemplated.

Congress then placed the matter in the hands of a new board, already mentioned, of which Admiral Walker was the head. Speaking of the probable cost, as Admiral Walker put it: "We have made no figures. It is no use to figure until we have all our data." "Speaking as anybody on the street might speak," he put it at $125,000,000, "and would not be sur-

prised if it came considerably below that." Professor Haupt thought the canal could be constructed for $90,000,000, while General Hains, an army engineer, said: "I would not like to make a guess now and guaranteee that I would be within twenty-five or thirty millions," but with that margin "of a possible reduction of $25,000,000 or $30,000,000," he stated the maximum sum at $140,000,000. Of course such estimates are not to be depended upon. When, in fact, it is considered that the Suez Canal was estimated at $40,000,000, and constructed but with reduced dimensions of 72 instead of 125-feet bottom width for $110,000,000; that the Manchester Canal, executed, not in the tropics, but in England, was estimated at $50,000,000 for all expenses of all kinds, and cost more than $75,000,000, we can be sure that the element of uncertainty as to cost will be quite likely to be great. There is so strong a desire on the part of some of our people to build this canal, that there is much intolerance of obstacles, whether they be real or imaginary. Engineers are liable to be influenced unconsciously by this feeling. It was only when they were attacked, that one board regretted that they had not said $150,000,000 where they had said $134,000,000; members of another board gave large sums, but added the possibilities of large reductions. The influence of the wishes of ourselves and others never will cease to affect estimates of costs, but it never affects actual expense. While the testimony given by the members of the Walker board was, in a certain sense, premature, and no one appreciated that more than the members themselves, it was certainly very useful, for it showed that the canal board had made the very objections which the maturer subsequent examination sustained.

Much has been said about the feasibility of the canal, and it would be well to understand what that term means. When the canal has been pronounced "feasible" it simply means that with time and money it can be built. Whether it should be built, when, and how, and by whom, are the questions which depend upon other considerations as well as upon cost, though that is an important element. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty, it is claimed, gives to England at least the right to demand the same privileges we have. If so, we cannot use the canal, as suggested by Mr. Hepburn, to subsidize indirectly our merchant marine by giving them lower tolls or making the canal free to them alone. In time of war, a blown-up dam or embankment might shut up a war vessel. In time of peace, however, there would be but small chance of damage.

As to the possible tonnage which would pass through, the subject has not been studied by any persons who were at once competent and unprejudiced. The estimates, or, rather, prognostications, run from 300,000 tons to 5,300,000 tons, certainly a great discrepancy. It would seem, therefore, that after the question of cost is determined, or perhaps while it is being determined, a commission of competent persons unprejudiced should be invited to study this part of the subject, and we shall be then equipped with the necessary facts to enable us to judge of the commercial success of the undertaking. In this connection we must reckon with the Panama Canal, which seems to be two-thirds excavated, and, taking into account the whole "installation" or plant, for want of a better word, to be one-half finished. Vast sums of money have been spent there, and still more wasted or worse. It is estimated that $100,000,000 additional will now push it from ocean to ocean. Whether this is a sound estimate or not we do not know, for, unlike the Nicaragua route, there have been no other investigations made than those by the company through its employés. This matter will be investigated by our people, and we have a right to make all proper inquiries, because by the treaty of 1846 with Grenada we guaranteed the neutrality of this canal.

The Panama Canal was originally intended to be a sea-level canal, running on that one level without locks from ocean to ocean. It is not needful for the present purpose to relate the history of its failures and of the disgrace and scandal connected with it. As a sea-level canal it was a failure, and no one now proposes to take up the enterprise in that form. To some, perhaps to many, Americans, it will be a surprise to know that, while the enterprise as a sea-level route has been given up, as a canal it has sur-

vived and is now in progress. Whether it will be built or not no one can definitely say, but the experience of mankind is that where so much money has been spent more money has almost always gone, and such works are quite likely to get finished. Were we able to free ourselves from ancient obligations and treaties, and make at Nicaragua such a canal as our people really want, a canal which would be part of us like the Sault St. Marie, other nations would have to finish the Panama. However that may be, it has seemed worth while, to enable us to give due consideration to the whole question, to state what the canal on the isthmus is to be, if the great enterprise is ever carried out. Perhaps that can be best done by taking a ship over the route, as we have over that in which we have been specially interesting ourselves. We have to build our harbors, one at Brito on the Pacific and the other at Greytown on the Caribbean Sea. The other canal has two harbors made by nature: Panama on the Pacific and Colon on the Atlantic. These harbors are already connected by a railroad built long ago, while on the other route a double-track railroad will have to be built at once from the lake to both oceans before any work can be done. Transportation would otherwise be impossible in those almost uninhabited regions. From the harbor of Panama the ship is to go 7½ miles on the sea-level to Miraflores, where she will be lifted by one lock 23 feet, more or less, depending on the state of the tide, which has a range of 20 feet at this end; then she will go 1¾ miles to Pedro Miguel, where two locks are to lift the ship 55½ feet to a new level 80 and 90 feet above the sea. The ship then moves 1¾ miles to Paradiso, where two locks are to lift her 55 feet more to the highest level, which is about 130 feet above the level of both oceans. Thence, over this high level, she proceeds 6¼ miles to Obispo, where she begins to descend towards the Atlantic. At Obispo three locks lower her 65½ feet, at which point she will reach the artificial lake to be made by damming the Chagres River, an artificial lake which covers an area of 21 square miles. Through this lake the ship will journey 13 miles to Buhio, where two locks will lower her 65½ feet to the canal, which thereafter will be again at sea-level, and 15 more miles at the sea-level will bring the ship to Colon and to the Atlantic Ocean. One more detail needs to be mentioned, for we shall want to know how the high level is maintained which constitutes 6¼ miles of the journey. At Alhajuala, 10 miles northeast of Obispo, north of the canal-line, the upper Chagres is to be dammed and a lake formed which will store 130,000,000 cubic yards of water. A canal 10 miles long, beginning 190½ feet above the sea, will conduct the water to the high level, which begins at Obispo and ends at Miraflores. It will be over a rough country, but it is claimed to be "feasible." There are other plans which lower the high level in different degrees, but they cost more money or more time. The level below the one described is, however, the one contemplated by the company. That means fewer locks.

In both these great enterprises, time of completion is a most important element; for interest runs all night and, on such vast sums, breeds other vast sums of which people take little heed. But while we lose sight of time it never loses sight of us, especially in the case of an interest account.

If it should be found that two canals are ready to be built by private capital, or even one, the neutrality of one being guaranteed by the United States by the treaty of 1848, and both perhaps by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, then we shall have to consider what we want further. If we want a canal built by the United States government under its own control, with power to fix discriminating rates in favor of its own citizens, with due fortifications for time of war, then we must consider our foreign relations. It seems admitted by the friends of the Nicaragua canal that these relations do not, as they stand now, admit such action on our part. Hitherto, the treaty in one way has been refused amendment by Great Britain, though thereto often requested.

Even from the cursory description here given, liable, of course, to contain some inaccuracies, it will be seen that the facts to be gathered to establish the best route demand the expenditure of both time and money, but an expenditure after all not

out of proportion to the magnitude of the undertaking. When you add to the picture the tropical growth and the climate, the wonder is that so much has been done. It is, on the other hand, not a wonder that so much remains to be done.

There ought not to be any intolerance in regard to opinions on this great and important enterprise. It is too difficult a problem to be mastered by enthusiasm alone. Sound sense and discretion must also be called into action. The final result no one can doubt. The commerce of the world in due time will eliminate Cape Horn to as complete a degree as it has eliminated the Cape of Good Hope.

June 28, 1902, President Roosevelt signed the Spooner canal bill, which authorized him to purchase the Panama Canal for $40,000,000, or, in default of clear title, to begin work on the Nicaragua Canal. See CLAYTON-BULWER TREATY; MORGAN, JOHN TYLER; PANAMA CANAL.

Nichola, or **Nicola,** LEWIS, military officer; born in Dublin in 1717; removed to Philadelphia, and began work there as a civil engineer in 1766; was made barracks-master-general of Philadelphia in 1776; and later became commander of the City Guard. When the Declaration of Independence was issued he published *A Treatise of Military Exercise, Calculated for the Use of Americans, in which every Thing that is supposed can be of Use to Them is retained, and such Manœuvres as are only for Show and Parade omitted. To which is added some Directions on the Other Points of Discipline.* He received the brevet of brigadier-general in the army in 1783. His skill in military matters made him of great service to the American cause, and he was the author of many valuable and practical suggestions. In May, 1783, at the instance of his comrades, he wrote a letter to Washington in which he gave the intimation that the United States would best be freed from perplexity by having a ruler with the title of king and suggested that Washington was the only man for so high an office. General Washington suffered much pain in consequence of this letter, and sternly rebuked its author. Nichola died in Alexandria, Va., Aug. 9, 1807.

Nicholas, ROBERT CARTER, statesman; born in Hanover, Va., in 1715; was educated at the College of William and Mary; and while quite young represented James City in the House of Burgesses, in which he continued until the House of Delegates was organized in 1777. In 1779 he was appointed judge of the high court of chancery. All through the controversy with Great Britain Nicholas worked shoulder to shoulder with Peyton Randolph, Bland, and other patriots, but voted against Patrick Henry's resolutions against the Stamp Act in 1765. He was treasurer of the colony in 1766–77, and in 1773 was a member of the Virginia committee of correspondence. He died in Hanover, Va., in 1780.

Nicholas, ROBERT CARTER, military officer; born in Hanover, Va., about 1793; served through the second war with Great Britain (1812–15); held a seat in the United States Senate in 1836–41; and subsequently was superintendent of public instruction in Louisiana. He died in Terrebonne parish, La., Dec. 24, 1857.

Nicholas, WILSON CARY, legislator; born in Hanover, Va., about 1757; son of Robert Carter Nicholas; was educated at the College of William and Mary; served as an officer in the Revolutionary War, and was commander of Washington's Lifeguard at the time of its disbandment in 1783. He was United States Senator in 1799–1804; member of Congress in 1807; collector of the ports of Norfolk and Portsmouth in 1804–7; and governor of Virginia in 1814–17. He died in Milton, Va., Oct. 10, 1820.

Nicholls, FRANCIS TILLON, military officer; born in Donaldsonville, La., Aug. 20, 1834; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1855; assigned to duty on the frontier; resigned his commission in October, 1856; and practised law in Napoleonville, La. In 1861 he was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of the 8th Louisiana Regiment; in 1862 was promoted colonel and brigadier-general. He lost a foot at the battle of Chancellorsville, and an arm at the battle of Winchester, Va.; was governor of Louisiana in 1877–80 and in 1888–92; and became chief-justice of the Supreme Court of Louisiana in 1893.

Nichols, EDWARD TATNALL, naval officer; born in Augusta, Ga., March 1, 1823;

graduated at the United States Naval Academy, and was commissioned a commander in 1862. When the Civil War broke out he was given command of the *Winona* of the Western Gulf blockading squadron. On April 28, 1862, Fort St. Philip, after having been bombarded, surrendered to him. Later he was placed in command of the steamer *Mendote*, with which he attacked the battery at Four Mile Creek on the James River, Va. He was promoted rear-admiral in 1878; retired in 1885. He died in Pomfret, Conn., Oct. 12, 1886.

Nichols, FRANCIS, military officer; born in Crieve Hill, Enniskillen, Ireland, in 1737; came to America in 1769; entered the Revolutionary army in Pennsylvania in June, 1775; was taken prisoner at Quebec, Dec. 31, 1775, but declined to surrender his sword to any one but an officer, and then only after a promise that it should be returned when he should be freed. In August, 1776, this promise was fulfilled, and his sword was restored, with all the American officers present to bear witness. He later became a brigadier-general. He died in Pottsville, Pa., Feb. 13, 1812.

Nichols, GEORGE, statesman; born in Hanover, Va., about 1755; graduated at William and Mary College in 1772; commissioned major of the 2d Virginia Regiment in 1777; and later was made its colonel. He was active in his State convention in securing the ratification of the federal Constitution, and wielded a powerful influence in the House of Delegates. He went to Kentucky in 1790, and was there elected a member of the convention to draw up a State constitution in 1792. Later he became the first attorney-general of that State. He died in Kentucky in 1799.

Nichols, GEORGE WARD, military officer; born in Mount Desert, Me., June 21, 1837; served through the Civil War, first on Gen. Frémont staff, and later on that of General Sherman. He published *The Story of Sherman's March to the Sea; The Sanctuary; Art Education*, etc. He died in Cincinnati, O., Sept. 15, 1885.

Nichols, HENRY E., naval officer; born in New York; entered the United States Naval Academy, Oct. 1, 1861; was promoted captain, March 3, 1899. In July, 1898, he joined Admiral Dewey's fleet at Manila. On Jan. 26, 1899, he was transferred to the double-turret monitor *Monadnock*, and with this vessel performed valuable service in co-operation with the army in the movements north of Manila. From April to June the *Monadnock*, while lying off Paranaque, was under the fire of the insurgents almost daily. The officers and crew suffered severely from the intense heat, but Captain Nichols and his men expressed a desire to remain till the place was captured. On June 10, 1899, while the *Monadnock* was shelling the insurgent trenches, Captain Nichols was overcome by heat, and died within a few hours.

Nichols, SIR RICHARD. See NICOLLS, SIR RICHARD.

Nichols, WILLIAM AUGUSTUS, military officer; born in Philadelphia, Pa., May 12, 1818; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1838. In the war with Mexico he was brevetted major in recognition of gallantry at Molino del Rey, and in the Civil War received the brevet of major-general in 1865. He died in St. Louis, Mo., April 8, 1869.

Nicholson, ALFRED OSBORN POPE, legislator; born in Williamson county, Tenn., Aug. 31, 1808; was graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1827; edited several papers in 1832–56; member of the State legislature in 1830–39; United States Senator in 1841–43 and 1857–61; delegate to the SOUTHERN CONVENTIONS (*q. v.*) in 1850; author of the letter to the Presidential candidates in 1848 known as the *Nicholson Letter*. He died in Columbia, Tenn., March 23, 1876.

Nicholson, SIR FRANCIS, colonial governor; born in England; was lieutenant-governor of New York under Andros, and acting governor in 1687–89. In 1694–99 he was governor of Maryland; in 1690–92 and 1699–1705, governor of Virginia. In 1710 he commanded the forces that captured Port Royal, Nova Scotia. In 1712–17 he was governor of Nova Scotia; in 1721–25 was governor of South Carolina. Returning to England in 1726, he was made a lieutenant-general. He died in London, England, March 5, 1728.

Nicholson, JAMES, naval officer; born in Chestertown, Md., in 1737; went to sea early, and was at the capture of Havana

by the English in 1762; entered the Continental navy in 1775, and in March, 1776, was in command of the *Defence*, with which he recaptured several vessels which the British had taken. In January, 1777, he succeeded Esek Hopkins as senior commander in the navy. He served a short time in the army, when he could not get to sea, and was in the battle at Trenton. On June 9, 1780, in command of the *Trumbull*, he had a severe action with the *Wyatt*, losing thirty men, with no decisive results. Off the Capes of the Delaware, in August, 1781, his vessel was dismantled by two British cruisers, and he was compelled to surrender. After the war Captain Nicholson resided in New York, where he died Sept. 2, 1804.

Nicholson, James William Augustus, naval officer; born in Dedham, Mass., March 10, 1821; entered the navy as midshipman in 1838; was acting master during the war with Mexico; and promoted rear-admiral in 1881. In the Civil War, during the engagement with the Confederate ram *Tennessee*, his vessel, the *Manhattan*, fired the only shots which pierced the former's armor plate. In August, 1864, he bombarded Fort Morgan and compelled it to surrender. In July, 1882, when the British fleet bombarded Alexandria, Egypt, he was present as commander of the European Station. After the action he sent 100 marines ashore to protect the consulate of the United States. His conduct throughout the bombardment received high commendation in Europe as well as the United States. He died in New York City, Oct. 28, 1887.

Nicholson, John B., naval officer; born in Richmond, Va., in 1783; was commissioned midshipman in 1800; promoted captain in 1828. When the *United States* took the British frigate *Macedonian* he was fourth lieutenant of the former vessel; was first lieutenant of the *Peacock* when she engaged the *Epervier*, and after the action towed the latter safely into port. Washington Irving was accustomed to refer to him as "Jovial Jack Nicholson." He died in Washington, D. C., Nov. 9, 1846.

Nicholson, Samuel, naval officer; born in Maryland in 1743; brother of Capt. James Nicholson, was a lieutenant under John Paul Jones in the famous battle of the *Bon Homme Richard* with the *Serapis*, and was made captain immediately afterwards. He cruised in the *Deane*, thirty-two guns, successfully. After the reorganization of the navy in 1794 he was appointed captain, and was the first commander of the frigate *Constitution*. He died in Charlestown, Mass., Dec. 29, 1813.

Nicholson, William Carmichael, naval officer; born in Maryland in 1800; was appointed a midshipman in July, 1812; served under Decatur on the *President* when that ship was forced to surrender to the British in the engagement near Long Island in January, 1815. Nicholson was taken to England and released at the conclusion of peace. He was in command of the steam frigate *Roanoke* in 1861, and was on special duty till 1866. He died in Philadelphia, July 25, 1872.

Nickerson, Frank Stillman, lawyer; born in Swanville, Me., Aug. 27, 1826; graduated at East Corinth College, Me., in 1841. On Dec. 31, 1861, he was commissioned colonel of the 14th Maine Regiment, and later promoted brigadier-general of volunteers. During the war he was commended for gallantry.

Nicola, Lewis. See Nichola.

Nicolay, John George, author; born in Essingen, Bavaria, Feb. 26, 1832; learned the printer's trade in the office of the *Free Press*, Pittsfield, and subsequently became its editor and proprietor. In 1860–65 he was private secretary of President Lincoln; in 1865–69 United States consul at Paris, France; and in 1872–87 marshal of the United States Supreme Court. He was the author of *The Outlook of Rebellion*, many magazine articles, and, with John Hay (*q. v.*) of *Abraham Lincoln; A History* (10 volumes), and *Abraham Lincoln, Complete Works*. He died in Washington, D. C., Sept. 26, 1901.

Nicolet, Jean, explorer; went to Quebec to trade with Indians, and extended his travels as far as Green Bay, Mich. Father Vimont wrote that his visit to this region was in 1634, which would make him the first white man who saw the prairies of Wisconsin. When he returned to Quebec he reported that he had sailed on a river which would have carried him to the sea in three days. According to this report the Jesuits thought

that the long-sought passage to India would soon be discovered.

Nicollet, JEAN NICHOLAS, explorer; born in Cluses, Savoy, July 24, 1786; came to the United States in 1823 to study the physical geography of North America; first travelled over the Southern States and then explored the region in which lay the sources of the Missouri, Arkansas, and Red rivers. In 1836 he explored the sources of the Mississippi. Afterwards he was employed by the War Department. His publications include *Report intended to illustrate a Map of the Hydrographical Basin of the Upper Mississippi River.* He died in Washington, D. C., Sept. 11, 1843.

Nicolls, SIR RICHARD, royal governor; born in Ampthill, England, in 1624; was one of the royal commissioners to inquire into the state of the English-American colonies, and to seize the province of NEW NETHERLAND (*q. v.*). Nicolls conducted the administration of affairs both in New York and New Jersey with prudence and moderation; resigned the government of New Jersey to Carteret in 1666, and was succeeded in the government of New York in 1667 by Colonel Lovelace. He died at sea, May 28, 1672.

Niles, HEZEKIAH, journalist; born in Chester county, Pa., Oct. 10, 1777; learned the trade of a printer, became a master workman in Wilmington, and for six years edited a daily paper in Baltimore. In 1811 he founded *Niles's Register,* a weekly journal, and edited it till 1836. He republished the *Register* in 32 volumes, extending from 1812 to 1827, and it was continued by his son until 1849, making 76 volumes. He also compiled *Principles and Acts of the Revolution.* He died in Wilmington, Del., April 2, 1839.

Niles, JOHN MILTON, editor; born in Windsor, Conn., Aug. 20, 1787; was admitted to the bar in 1817; United States Senator in 1835–39 and 1843–49; and Postmaster-General in 1840–41. He edited *The Independent Whig; Gazetteer of Connecticut and Rhode Island* (with Dr. J. C. Pease); *Lives of Perry, Lawrence, Pike, and Harrison; History of the Revolution in Mexico and South America, with a view of Texas; The Civil Officer;* and Archibald Robbin's *Journal of the Loss of the Brig Commerce upon the West Coast of Africa.* He died in Hartford, Conn., May 31, 1856.

Nindemann, WILLIAM FRIEDRICH CARL, explorer; born in Gingst, Germany, April 22, 1850; came to the United States in 1867; accompanied the Arctic explorers on the *Polaris* in 1871. The *Polaris* was caught in the ice in the autumn of 1872, and began to leak so badly that it was found necessary to land provisions. While busy at this task the ice-floe upon which Nindemann and eighteen of the crew were working broke loose and floated southward for 196 days. On April 29, 1873, they were picked up by the steamer *Tigress.* Later he served on this vessel when she went in search of the *Polaris.* In 1873 he shipped on board the *Jeannette* for another Arctic voyage. Four years later Captain De Long sent him and Louis P. Noros in search of aid. After travelling southward for twelve days they found a native who conducted them to Kumak Surka, from which they sent word to Com. George Melville, who later met them. On March 15, 1882, Nindemann, Melville, and J. H. Bartlett found the bodies of De Long and his crew. See ARCTIC EXPLORATIONS.

Ninegret, chief of the Narraganset Indians, and uncle of MIANTONOMOH (*q. v.*). He aided the English in the Pequod War (1637). Because of a supposed plot between Ninegret and the Dutch, the commissioners or Congress of the New England Confederation deemed it advisable to make war upon him. They voted 250 foot-soldiers (1653). The commissioners of Massachusetts did not agree with the others in the measure. Ninegret prosecuted a war with the Long Island Indians, who had placed themselves under the protection of the English. In September, 1654, the commissioners sent a message to Ninegret, demanding his appearance at Hartford, where they were convened, and the payment of a tribute long due for the Pequods under him. He refused to appear, and sent them a haughty answer. They therefore determined again to make war on him. They raised 270 infantry and forty horsemen. Maj. Simon Willard was appointed commander-in-chief of these forces, with instructions to proceed directly to Ninegret's quarters and demand of him the Pequods who had been put un-

der him and the tribute still due; also a cessation of war upon the Long Island Indians. On the approach of the troops, Ninegret fled to a distant swamp and was not pursued. Keeping aloof from King Philip's War, he escaped the ruin that fell upon other tribes.

Ninety-six, Fort, a defensive work on the site of the village of Cambridge, in Abbeville district, S. C.; so named because it was 96 miles from the frontier fort, Prince George, on the Keowee River, 147 miles northwest from Charleston. On May 22, 1781, General Greene commenced the siege of this fort. It was garrisoned by American loyalists, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonel Cruger. Greene had less than 1,000 regulars and a few raw militia. The fort was too strong to be captured by assault, and regular approaches by parallels were made under the direction of Kosciuszko. The work of the siege was interrupted by an occasional sortie for about a month, when Greene, hearing of the approach of Rawdon with a strong force to relieve Cruger, made an unsuccessful effort (June 18) to take the place by storm. On the following evening Greene raised the siege and retreated beyond the Saluda River. Rawdon pursued them a short distance, when he wheeled and marched to Orangeburg. Soon afterwards the fort was abandoned, and the garrison joined Rawdon's troops on their march to Orangeburg, followed by a train of frightened Tory families. Greene also followed, but soon retired to the high hills of Santee to refresh his troops.

"Ninety-two" and "Forty-five." John Wilkes, an able political writer, edited and published in London a newspaper called *The North Briton.* In No. 45 (1763) he made a severe attack upon the government, for which he was prosecuted and committed to the Tower, but was acquitted and awarded $5,000 damages for the imprisonment. He was regarded as the great champion of the people, and considered a martyr to their cause. This blow at the freedom of speech caused violent political excitement, and "Forty-five!" the number of *The North Briton* in which the attack appeared, became the war-cry of the democratic party in England. After ninety-two members of the Massachusetts Assembly refused to rescind the famous circular letter in 1774 (see Massachusetts), "Ninety-two" became a political catch-word in the colonies. When the Americans in London heard of the action of the Massachusetts Assembly, their favorite toast became "May the unrescinding ninety-two be forever united in idea with the glorious Forty-five." "These numbers were combined in an endless variety in the colonies," says Frothingham. "Ninety-two patriots at a festival would drink forty-five toasts. The representatives would have forty-five or ninety-two votes. The ball would have ninety-two jigs and forty-five minuets. The Daughters of Liberty would, at a quilting-party, have their garment of forty-five pieces of calico of one color and ninety-two of another. Ninety-two Sons of Liberty would raise a flag-staff forty-five feet high. At the dedication of a liberty-tree in Charleston forty-five lights hung on its branches, forty-five of the company bore torches in the procession, and they joined in the march in honor of the Massachusetts ninety-two. At the festival forty-five candles lighted the table, and ninety-two glasses were used in drinking toasts; and the president gave as a sentiment, 'May the ensuing members of the Assembly be unanimous, and never recede from the resolutions of the Massachusetts ninety-two.'"

Nino, Pedro Alonso, explorer; born in Moguer, Spain, in 1468; served with Columbus on his third voyage, and with him discovered the island of Trinidad, Oct. 1, 1498, and later the coast which Columbus named Tierra Firme, and the outlets of the Orinoco River. Returning to Spain he fitted out an expedition on his own behalf, crossed the ocean in twenty-three days and visited the gulf on the coast of Tierra Firme, named by Ojeda the Gulf of Pearls, and secured a large amount of pearls by trading with the natives. He then cruised up the coast to Punta Araya, where he discovered the salt-mines which are still famous. He died in Spain about 1505.

Nivelles, Charles Étienne de, military officer; born in Dauphine, France, about 1665; served for several years in Canada; and then went to Louisiana. In 1699 he was one of the founders of Biloxi, the first French colony in Louisiana; in 1705 when yellow fever occurred

there he kept the colonists from dispersing. Later when the women rebelled against the diet of Indian corn he aided in putting down the rebellion, which was dubbed the "petticoat insurrection." He was drowned in the great flood of 1711.

Niven, WILLIAM, mineralogist and explorer; born in Bellshill, Lanarkshire, Scotland, Oct. 6, 1850; was educated in the common schools in Scotland; came to the United States in 1879; and was engaged in mineralogical investigations in Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and Mexico till 1884, when he became assistant commissioner for Arizona to the World's Fair in New Orleans. He discovered four new minerals: thorogummite, yttridlite, and nivenite, in Llano county, Tex., in 1889, and aguilarite, at Guanajuato, Mex., in 1891. He also noted the occurrence of rare and valuable minerals on Manhattan Island (New York City), and in West Paterson, N. J., in 1895 and 1896. While prospecting in the state of Guerrero, Mex., in 1891, he discovered the remains of a prehistoric city, Omitlan, hundreds of square miles in extent. He afterwards carried on extensive explorations and excavations in that locality, and brought to light many valuable relics, most of which are in the Museum of Natural History in New York City, which furnished the funds for the work.

Nixon, JOHN, military officer; born in Framingham, Mass., March 4, 1725; was a soldier at the capture of Louisburg in 1745; served in the army and navy seven years; fought at Ticonderoga under Abercrombie, leading a company as captain. He led a company of minute-men at Lexington, and commanded a regiment at Bunker Hill, receiving a wound from which he never fully recovered. He was made a brigadier-general in 1776, and commanded a brigade in the battle of Stillwater, in which engagement a cannon-ball passed so near his head that it permanently impaired the sight of one eye and the hearing of one ear. Resigned Sept. 12, 1780. He died in Middlebury, Vt., March 24, 1815.

Nixon, LEWIS, naval architect; born in Leesburg, Va., in 1861; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1882, at the head of his class; was sent by the government to the Royal Naval College, at Greenwich, England, where he took a special course in engineering and ordnance; and afterwards made tours throughout Great Britain and on the Continent to study the workings of the great European docks, dock-yards, arsenals, and steel and armor plants. In 1884 he was appointed assistant naval constructor, and in the following year was assigned to Roach's ship-yard in Chester, Pa., where the *Chicago, Boston, Atlanta,* and *Dolphin* were in course of construction. Later he served on the staffs of Chief Constructors Wilson and Hichborn, and also as superintending constructor at Cramp's ship-yard, Philadelphia. In 1890 he drew the plans for the battle-ships of the *Oregon* and *Indiana* class. In 1891 he resigned from the navy to become superintending constructor for the Cramp ship-building company, and in 1894 he resigned this post and leased the Crescent Ship-yard, at Elizabeth, N. J., where he constructed many naval and other vessels, among them the *Holland* torpedo-boat, and the *Annapolis,* the first composite gunboat ever built for the navy. In 1901 he was identified with a municipal reform movement in New York City.

Noailles, LOUIS MARIE, VISCOUNT DE, military officer; born in Paris, France, April 17, 1756; was a distinguished military officer under Rochambeau in the siege of Yorktown, where he commanded a regiment, and was one of the commissioners to arrange articles of capitulation for the surrender of Cornwallis. He was brother-in-law of Lafayette; and in 1789, with other nobles, laid aside his titles and sat with the Third Estate, or Commons, in the French Parliament. As the Revolution assumed the form of a huge tyranny, he left the army and came to the United States. Re-entering the French service in 1803, he was sent to Santo Domingo in that year, where he was mortally wounded in an action with an English vessel, and died in Havana, Cuba, Jan. 9, 1804. During his absence in the United States his wife was guillotined.

Nobility, TITLES OF. In the new naturalization bill was a clause prohibiting the use of a title of nobility by an alien after he should become a citizen of the United States. This provision was first suggested by Giles, of Virginia. The New

England Federalists ridiculed it, and it became a subject of warm debate in Congress. They argued that a title was harmless, and that to refuse it might seem churlish, especially to require its renunciation by an unhappy exile. "The very judge," they said, "who administered the oath or pledge to such a naturalized citizen might the next moment address him as 'marquis,' 'count,' or 'my lord,' and who could prevent it? . . . Why not require him to renounce his connection with the Jacobin Club, if he should be a member of it?" asked a New England member. "Why not require him to renounce the pope?" Priestcraft, he thought, was quite as dangerous as aristocracy. Giles, who had called for the yeas and nays, placed these New-Englanders in the dilemma that they must vote for his proposition or be numbered among the friends of ARISTOCRACY (*q. v.*), then a very unpopular position. To force Giles to abandon his call for the yeas and nays, Dexter, of Massachusetts, moved as an additional amendment that in case the applicant for citizenship were a slaveholder, he should renounce, along with his titles of nobility, all his claim, right, and title as an owner of slaves. This motion produced an intense excitement among the Southern members. It was declared to be an indirect attack upon the Constitution and those who held slaves. Another said it would wound the feelings and alienate the affections of six or eight States of the Union. The motion had its intended effect. Giles, who saw the awkwardness of voting against titles of nobility and in favor of slave-holding in the same breath, professed his readiness to give up the yeas and nays. Holding slaves to be as sacred property as any other, he would never consent to prohibit immigrants from holding slaves. Titles of nobility were but names, and nobody was obliged to give them up unless he wished to become an American citizen. It was argued by Lee, of Virginia, that, as the cause of the obnoxious provision was the fear of harboring among us a class who, because of the nature of their education, their habits of assumed superiority, the servile court they had uniformly received, could not make good citizens of a free republic, the same reasoning applied to the existing relations of superiority and servility between master and slave would prove the Southern slave-holder to be unfit for an American citizen—a relation really more objectionable than that of lord and vassal. The vote in favor of the renunciation of the use of titles was carried, 58 to 32.

Noble, JOHN WILLOCK, lawyer; born in Lancaster, O., Oct. 26, 1831; graduated at Yale College in 1851; entered the Union army in the 3d Iowa Cavalry, of which he became colonel, and was brevetted brigadier-general of volunteers at the close of the war. In 1867–70 he was United States attorney for Missouri at St. Louis. President Grant offered him the post of United States solicitor-general, which he declined. In 1889 President Harrison appointed him Secretary of the Department of the Interior, and in 1893 he resumed practice in St. Louis.

Noddle's Island, SKIRMISH ON. In the early summer of 1775, Noddle's Island and Hog Island abounded with hay, horned cattle, sheep, and horses belonging to the British, then in Boston. On the morning of May 27, about twenty-five men went to the islands and carried away or destroyed much of the stock. A party of marines was sent from the British squadron in the harbor on a sloop and schooner to arrest them. The Americans retreated from Noddle's Island to Hog Island, and took from the latter 300 sheep, besides cows and horses. Then they drew up in battle order on Chelsea Neck, and by 9 P.M. they were reinforced with two 4-pounders, and were led by Dr. Joseph Warren, with General Putnam as chief commander. They kept up a cannonade on the schooner for two hours, when the British deserted her, and at dawn the Americans boarded her, carried off four 4-pounders and twelve swivels, and then set her on fire. In this skirmish the British lost twenty killed and fifty wounded; the Americans had four slightly wounded.

Nogaret, STANISLAS HENRY LUCIEN DE, colonist; born in Marseilles, France, in 1682; enlisted in the army about 1698; ordered to Louisiana in 1716; and later appointed commander of Fort Rosalie. In 1729 the Natchez Indians burned this fort and murdered nearly all the settlers in its vicinity. Nogaret, with a few oth-

ers, escaped, and a few months afterwards returned with a French force, defeated the Indians, and restored the fort. He published *Précis des établissements fondés dans la vallée du Mississippi par le Chevalier Le Moyne de Bienville, suivi d'une histoire des guerres avec les Indiens Natchez.* He died in Paris in 1759.

No Man's Land. When Texas was annexed to the United States, in 1845, its boundaries extended nearly 35 miles farther north than the parallel 36° 30′. By the conditions of the act of Congress known as the MISSOURI COMPROMISE (*q. v.*) slavery was forbidden in all new States north of that parallel, and hence that portion of Texas could not be admitted as part of a slave State. Texas accordingly ceded it to the United States government—it being a strip of land 34½ miles wide and 167½ miles long. Although represented on the maps as a portion of Indian Territory, this tract of land was for more than forty years outside the jurisdiction of the courts, infested by desperadoes and refugees from justice—a veritable "no man's land"—in which no form of government existed. In 1886, however, there were 12,000 inhabitants, and an effort was made to organize it into the Territory of Cimarron, but without success. In 1890 it became a part of the Territory of Oklahoma. It embraces about 3,700,000 acres.

Nominating Conventions, NATIONAL. Previous to 1816 the custom was to hold a congressional caucus, canvass the subject, and name the candidates; then the several State legislatures selected the electors, who voted for whomsoever they pleased for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency. In May, 1812, when the congressional caucus was called, the members assembled "in their individual character," which clearly indicates the drift of the opinion of the day. It is true, that Madison was unanimously nominated, but the "caucus" went further, and appointed "a committee on correspondence and arrangements of one from each State, to see that the nominations were duly respected." In the congressional caucus of 1816, Mr. Taylor, of New York, offered a resolution to the effect that "congressional caucus nominations for the Presidency were inexpedient and ought to be discontinued." This was a new move, and although the motion did not prevail, the subject once started in that manner in the caucus itself was not to be talked down. Up to 1824 the electors were usually chosen by the several State legislatures, as has been the custom in South Carolina, even down to a very recent date. In the year named the Federalists had ceased to be of political importance as a party, and the Republicans were not held together by any outside pressure. Local preferences entered into the canvass, and candidates multiplied. Nominations were made by legislatures and by mass-meetings throughout the country. The power of King Caucus was broken. It is a fact that William H. Crawford, of Georgia, was nominated in the old style by the caucus and backed by home conventions, but John C. Calhoun, Andrew Jackson, Henry Clay, and John Quincy Adams also had home support, and entered the field, leaving Crawford away out of sight in the race. In 1828 local conventions multiplied, and the spirit of the movement manifested itself when (Sept. 16, 1831) the United States Anti-masonic Convention met at Baltimore and nominated William Wirt for the Presidency (see ANTI-MASONIC PARTY). That was the time of the excitement in relation to the abduction of William Morgan, and the anti-masons made the first great move. Then the National Republican (Adams's and Clay's) party met as such for the first and last time at Baltimore, Dec. 12, 1831, and Henry Clay was nominated. In the same city, in the spring of 1832, the Democrats held their first national convention, and nominated Jackson and Van Buren. From that campaign date the national political conventions in the United States, which have become such an important factor in our politics. See UNITED STATES.

Non-conformists, a title given to those Protestants of England who refused to conform to the doctrines and ceremonials of the Established Church in that country; first applied in 1572. Ninety years afterwards (1662) about 2,000 ministers of the Established Church, unwilling to subscribe to the Thirty-nine Articles of Faith, seceded, and were called Dissenters, a name used at the present time in speak-

ing of all British Protestants who are not attached to the Church of England. The English-American colonies were first peopled chiefly by Non-conformists and Dissenters.

Non-importation Acts. In 1687 an excise duty on tobacco was laid in England, which alarmed the Virginia planters, and they attempted to retaliate by procuring acts of the Assembly for the encouragement of domestic manufactures, that they might import less from the mother-country. King James disallowed these acts as hostile to English interests. A similar attempt failed in Maryland. By 1765 the commerce between Great Britain and her American colonies had become very important, and any measure which might interrupt its course would be felt by a large and powerful class in England, whose influence would in turn be felt in Parliament. Few dared to think of positive rebellion. A bright thought occurred to some one at a meeting of merchants in New York on Oct. 31, 1765, the day before the Stamp Act was to go into operation. It was proposed at that meeting that the merchants should enter into an agreement not to import from England certain enumerated articles after Jan. 1 next ensuing. At another meeting (Nov. 6) a committee of correspondence was appointed, who soon set the ball in motion. The merchants of Philadelphia readily responded to the measure, and on Dec. 9 those of Boston entered into a similar agreement. These pledges were not confined to the merchants alone, but the people in general ceased using foreign luxuries; and at the same time, as a part of the same plan, a combination was entered into for the support of American manufactures, the wearing of American cloths, and the increase of sheep by ceasing to eat lamb or mutton. This was the beginning of that system of non-importation agreements resorted to by the Americans which hurled back upon England with great force the commercial miseries she had inflicted upon her colonies, and established there a large and powerful class who sympathized with the Americans. In the case in question, petitions for the repeal of the Stamp Act poured into the House of Commons from the merchants and traders of London, whose interests were severely smitten, so that Parliament felt compelled to listen; and a few months after the Non-importation League in New York was formed the obnoxious act was repealed.

When, in May, 1769, the House of Burgesses in Virginia passed a series of resolutions maintaining the right of the colonists to self-taxation, to petition and remonstrance, and to be tried in all cases by a jury of the vicinity, Governor Botetourt, as in duty bound, dissolved the House. The members met the next day in the Raleigh Tavern, in Williamsburg, formed themselves into a voluntary convention, with Peyton Randolph as chairman, drew up and signed an agreement against the importation of merchandise from Great Britain, and recommended such a course to the people, and then repaired to their several counties. All who participated affirmatively in the proceedings of the convention were re-elected to the next General Assembly. Towards the close of 1770, however, the merchants began to be lax in the observance of non-importation agreements, and at a meeting in Boston in October it was resolved to import everything but tea. Merchants in other cities followed their example. These associations, while having a powerful political effect, brought about many salutary social reforms among the people of the colonies, by causing the discontinuance of many extravagant customs which involved large expenditures of money, and needed lessons of strict economy were learned.

An act of Congress became a law April 18, 1806, prohibiting the importation from Great Britain or her dependencies, or from any other country, of the following articles of British manufacture: all articles of which leather, silk, hemp, or flax, and tin and brass (except in sheets), were of chief value; woollen cloths, where the invoice prices should exceed 5*s.* sterling a yard; woollen hosiery of all kinds; window-glass, and all the manufactures of glass; silver and plated ware; paper of every description; nails and spikes; mats and clothing ready made; millinery of all kinds; playing-cards; beer, ale, and porter; and pictures and prints. To give time for intermediate negotiations, the commencement of the prohibition was postponed until the middle of November

next ensuing. In December the act was further suspended until July following. See EMBARGO ACTS.

Non-intercourse Acts. On June 12, 1798, Congress passed an act suspending all commercial intercourse with France and her dependencies. This widened the rupture between the two countries. While the embargo act was to be repealed, a substitute was given in the form of a non-intercourse act, which was passed in February, 1809. It did not satisfy everybody, but seemed the best attainable, and it received 81 votes against 40. The embargo remained in force until March 15, 1809, so far as related to all countries excepting France and Great Britain and its dependencies; and to them also after the end of the next session of Congress. See BERLIN DECREE; MILAN DECREE; ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

Nonsense, FORT, an unfinished earthwork erected by the Continental army in the winter of 1779–80, on the hills overlooking Morristown, N. J. During that winter Washington's army was encamped on the hill back of the court-house, the encampment extending several miles into the country. The soldiers lived principally in small log-huts, and were in a state of much suffering and privation. The weather was exceedingly cold and stormy. In a private letter to a friend, General Washington said, "We have had the virtue and patience of the army put to the severest trial. Sometimes it has been five or six days together without bread; at other times as many days without meat; and once or twice two or three days without either. I hardly thought it possible at one period that we should be able to keep it together, nor could it have been done but for the exertions of the magistrates in the several counties of this State." The last sentence referred to Washington's inability to procure necessary supplies from the commissary department.

In this trying situation Washington endeavored to maintain the spirit of discipline in his army by a ruse to the effect that the British were about to march upon the encampment. He therefore directed the men to hasten the erection of a defensive work, and the army was so engaged till the receipt of relief stores. On account of the circumstances under which this fortification was begun the name of Fort Nonsense has been given to it. In 1888 the Washington Association of New Jersey erected a memorial stone bearing the following inscription:

"This stone marks the site of Fort Nonsense, an earthwork built by the Continental army in the winter of 1779–80."

Nootka Sound. In 1789 Spain seized a number of British vessels on the coast of what is now British Columbia, on the ground that the territory belonged to Spain. In 1790 the Nootka convention was agreed upon, both countries agreeing to respect each other's settlements, and trade to be open to both at all points.

Nordhoff, CHARLES, author and journalist; born in Westphalia, Prussia, Aug. 31, 1830; came with his parents to the United States in 1835; received a common school education in Cincinnati. He was a sailor—in the naval, merchant, and whaling service—about eleven years, when he became a journalist. From 1857 to 1861 he was with Harper & Brothers, and from 1861 to 1871 with the New York *Evening Post*, and from 1872–87 was editor of the *Herald*, New York. He published several books, including *Man-of-War Life; The Merchant Vessel; Whaling and Fishing; Secession is Rebellion; The Cotton States; California; Freedom of the South Carolina Islands; Oregon and the Sandwich Islands; Communistic Societies of the United States; Politics for Young Americans*, etc. He died in San Francisco, Cal., July 14, 1901.

Norfolk, DESTRUCTION OF. The repulse at the Great Bridge, Dec. 9, 1775, greatly exasperated LORD DUNMORE (*q. v.*), who had remained in safety at Norfolk, while his motley forces were greatly dispirited. The Virginians were elated, and five days after the battle they entered Norfolk in triumph, where they were joined by a North Carolina regiment under Col. Robert Howe. Dunmore had abandoned his intrenchments at Norfolk, after spiking his twenty pieces of cannon, and invited the loyalists of the city to take refuge with him on the fleet, for he had determined to destroy the town. The poor negroes whom he had coaxed into his service were left without protection, and many of them starved to death. Par-

ties sent on shore to procure provisions were cut off, and famine menaced the fleet, for the multitude of mouths to be filled increased. The vessels were also annoyed by firing from the shore. A British frigate arriving at that juncture emboldened Dunmore, and he sent a flag to Colonel Howe with a threat to burn the town if the firing did not cease and provisions were not sent to the fleet. A flat refusal was given. On the morning of Dec. 31 Dunmore gave notice that he should cannonade the town, so that women and children and loyalists might leave it. The cannonade was opened at 4 A.M. the next day, and marines and sailors were sent on shore to set fire to the city. The wind was blowing from the water, and the buildings being chiefly of wood, a greater portion of the most compact part of the town was laid in ashes. The conflagration raged about fifty hours, and hundreds of wretched people were left shelterless in the cold winter air. During the conflagration the cannonade was kept up, and parties of musketeers attacked shivering and starving groups of defenceless inhabitants. Strange to say, during the three days of horror not one of the patriot troops was killed, and only three or four women and children were slain in the streets. General Stevens, of the Virginia militia, remained on the spot until February, and, after

ST. PAUL'S CHURCH, NORFOLK.

all the families were removed, he burned the rest of the town, that it might not afford shelter for the enemy. Thus a flourishing city was temporarily wiped out. Almost the only building that escaped the perils of that day of terror in Norfolk was the ancient St. Paul's Church, cruciform in shape and built of imported bricks. On the street front of the church, near the southwest corner, was left a large cavity made by a cannon-ball hurled from one of the ships during the attack.

In Civil War Days.—What is known as the Norfolk navy-yard is at Gosport, on the bank of a deep and sluggish stream flowing out of the Great Dismal Swamp, and opposite the city of Norfolk. At the beginning of the Civil War this station was one of the oldest and most extensive belonging to the government, and covered an area three-fourths of a mile in length and one-fourth of a mile in width. In the river the largest vessels of war might float, and everything for building and finishing such vessels was seen there in greatest perfection. The quantities of arms and munitions laid up were enormous. There were at least 2,000 pieces of heavy cannon fit for service, 300 of which were new Dahlgren guns. It was estimated that the aggregate value of the property there was between $9,000,000 and $10,000,000. Besides this, several war-vessels were afloat there. The Buchanan administration, to avoid irritating the Virginia politicians, had left all of this public property to exposure or destruction. Even the new administration of President Lincoln was for a time very circumspect. When directing (April 4, 1861) Commodore McCauley to "put the shipping and public property in condition to be moved and placed beyond danger should it become necessary," he was warned to "take no steps that would give needless alarm." Meanwhile, the Virginia Confederates had proposed to seize or destroy all this property. As early as the night of April 16, two light boats of 80 tons each were sunk in the channel of the Elizabeth River, below Norfolk, to prevent the government vessels leaving the stream.

The government, alarmed, sent Capt. Hiram Paulding from Washington with instructions for McCauley to lose no time in "arming the *Merrimac*, and in getting the *Plymouth* and *Dolphin* beyond danger; to have the *Germantown* in condition to be towed out, and to put the more valuable property, ordnance and stores, on shipboard, so that they could at any mo-

BURNING OF THE NAVY-YARD IN 1861.

ment be moved beyond danger." He was also instructed to defend the property under his charge "at any hazard, repelling by force, if necessary, any and all attempts to seize it, whether by mob violence, organized effort, or any assumed authority." Paulding caused the frigate *Cumberland* to be placed, with a full crew and armament on board, so as to command the entire navy-yard and then returned to Washington.

McCauley, apparently unsuspicious of treachery around him, neglected to carry out the instructions sent him until it was too late. His Southern-born officers deceived him by protestations of loyalty. "You have no Pensacola officers here," they said to McCauley. "We will never desert you; we will stand by you until the last, even unto death." On the day after the passage of the Virginia ordinance of secession, they deserted their flag and joined the Confederates. On the evening of April 18, General Taliaferro, commander of the forces in southeastern Virginia, appeared at Norfolk with his staff, and prepared to seize the navy-yard and the ships-of-war. The disloyal officers had corrupted the workmen in the navy-yard, and these were also ready to join the Confederates. The military companies of Norfolk and Portsmouth were paraded under arms. Several companies of riflemen came from Petersburg, in number about 600, and a corps came from Richmond, bringing with them fourteen pieces of heavy rifled cannon, and plenty of ammunition. With these troops Taliaferro felt certain of success.

McCauley was now equally certain that he could not withstand so large a force, and to quiet the people of Norfolk, who were greatly excited by a rumor that the guns of the vessels were to be opened on the town, he sent word that he should make no movement except in self-defence. On the return of his flag from Norfolk, McCauley gave orders for scuttling all the vessels to prevent their falling into the hands of the Confederates. This was done

at 4 P.M. The *Cumberland* only was spared. Word had reached Washington of the remissness of McCauley, and Paulding was despatched in the *Pawnee* with 100 marines to relieve the commodore. At Fort Monroe he took on board 350 Massachusetts volunteers just arrived, but when he reached Norfolk the scuttling of the vessels was completed. They might all have been saved. Paulding saw the fatal error. He saw that more than scuttling must be performed to render the ships useless to the Confederates. He also perceived that with his small land force he could not defend the navy-yard; so, using the discretionary power given him, he proceeded to burn the slowly sinking ships, and to commit to the flames all the buildings and other inflammable property in the navy-yard. He sent 100 men under Lieut. J. H. Russell with sledge-hammers to knock off the trunnions of the cannon. The Dahlgren guns resisted the hammers, but those of a large number of the old-pattern guns were destroyed. Many were spiked, but so indifferently that they were soon repaired by the Confederates. All the men were taken on board the *Pawnee* and *Cumberland*, excepting those who were to commit the work of destruction.

Before dawn on the morning of April 21 the conflagration was started, but the destruction was not made complete. The vessels, with the men, immediately withdrew, when the Confederates took possession and saved all the buildings, provisions, and stores in the yard, except the immense ship-houses, the barracks, and rigging, sail, and ordnance lofts. A vast number of the cannon were uninjured, and played a conspicuous part in the war on the side of the Confederates. The money value of the property destroyed was estimated at $7,000,000. Two of the sunken vessels, the *Merrimac* and *Plymouth*, which were not consumed, were afterwards raised by the Confederates and converted into powerful iron-clad vessels of war. Norfolk, and Portsmouth opposite, and old Fort Norfolk, on the river-bank below, were taken possession of by the Confederates. The possession of these places and of Harper's Ferry were important acquisitions for the Confederates, preliminary to an attempt to seize Washington.

While stationed at Fort Monroe, in 1862, General Wool saw the eminent advantage of the James River as a highway for supplies for McClellan's army moving up the Peninsula, and urged the government to allow him to capture Norfolk, and so secure the free navigation of that stream. After the evacuation of Yorktown, President Lincoln and Secretary Stanton visited Fort Monroe and granted Wool's request. Having made personal reconnoissance, he crossed Hampton Roads with a few regiments, landed in the rear of a Confederate force on the Norfolk side of the Elizabeth River, and moved towards the city. General Huger, of South Carolina, was in command there. He had already perceived his peril, with Burnside in his rear and McClellan on his flank, and immediately retreated, turning over Norfolk to the care of Mayor Lamb. Norfolk was surrendered May 10, and General Viele was appointed military governor. The Confederates fled towards Richmond, first setting fire to a slow match attached to the *Merrimac* and other vessels at the navy-yard, which blew the monster ram into fragments. The Confederate gunboats on the James River fled to Richmond, closely pursued by a National flotilla under Commodore Rodgers, which was checked by strong fortifications at Drewry's Bluff, below Richmond.

Norman, HENRY, journalist; born in Leicester, England, Sept. 19, 1858; graduated at Harvard University in 1881; and studied at Leipsic University in 1881–83. In 1882 he began a vigorous agitation for the preservation of Niagara Falls, which resulted in the establishment of a public park on both sides of the Falls by the State of New York and the Dominion of Canada. In 1896 he became the correspondent of the *Daily Chronicle* in the United States during the excitement over the Venezuelan boundary dispute (see CLEVELAND, GROVER), and in 1898 he again made his headquarters in Washington, D. C., during the war with Spain. His letters to the *Daily Chronicle* on both of these occasions attracted much attention in the United States and Europe. He has been the London correspondent of the New York *Times* and the Chicago *Tribune* for several years. Mr. Norman has published in book form *An Account of the Harvard Greek Play; The Preser-*

vation of the Niagara Falls; The Real Japan; The People and Politics of the Far East.

Norridgewock, EXPEDITION TO. The Jesuit mission under the charge of Father Rale, or Rasles, at Norridgewock, on the upper Kennebec, was an object of suspicion in Massachusetts for almost twenty years, for it was known that Rale had accompanied the French and Indians in their forays in the early part of Queen Anne's War. The Eastern Indians were in a bad humor in 1720, on account of encroachments upon their lands, and there were signs of hostility on their part, which, it was believed, had been excited by the Jesuit missionary. Finally, Father Rale was formally accused of stimulating the Eastern Indians to make war, and in August, 1721, the governor and council of Massachusetts agreed to send a secret expedition to Norridgewock to seize him. The expedition moved in January, 1722, but did not succeed in capturing Father Rale. His papers, seized by the assailants, who pillaged the chapel and the missionary's house, confirmed the suspicion. The Indians retorted for this attack by burning Brunswick, a new village recently established on the Androscoggin. The tribes in Nova Scotia joined in the war that had been kindled, and seized seventeen fishing-vessels in the Gut of Canso, July, 1722, belonging to Massachusetts. Hostilities continued until 1724, when, in August, an expedition surprised Norridgewock, and Rale and about thirty Indian converts were slain, the chapel was burned, and the village broken up.

Norris, ISAAC, statesman; born in Philadelphia, Pa., Oct. 3, 1701; opposed warlike measures when war between Spain and France was imminent in 1739. His supporters were called the "Norris party." Later he was elected to the Assembly, of which he was made speaker in 1751–64. When the bell for the old state-house was ordered he suggested the inscription "Proclaim liberty throughout the land, unto all the inhabitants thereof." He died in Fair Hill, Pa., June 13, 1766.

Norsemen. See NORTHMEN; VINLAND.

North, CALEB, military officer; born in Chester county, Pa., July 15, 1753; promoted lieutenant-colonel in 1777; rendered valuable service in the battles of Germantown and Monmouth; and conducted the British prisoners from Virginia to York and Lancaster, Pa., after the surrender of Cornwallis. He died in Philadelphia, Nov. 7, 1840.

North, FREDERICK, second Earl of Guilford, and eighth Baron North, statesman; born in England, April 13, 1733; educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge, he made a lengthened tour on the Continent. In 1754 he entered Parliament for Banbury, which he represented almost thirty years; and entered the cabinet under Pitt, in 1759, as commissioner of the treasury. He warmly supported the Stamp Act (1764–65) and the right of Parliament to tax the colonies. In 1766 he was appointed paymaster of the forces, and the next year was made chancellor of the exchequer, succeeding Charles Townshend as leader of the House of Commons. He became prime minister in 1770, and he held that post during the American Revolutionary War. In February, 1775, Lord North received information from BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (*q. v.*), which greatly disheartened him, and he dreaded a war with the colonists which his encouragement of the King's obstinacy was provoking, and, armed with the King's consent in writing, he proposed, in the House of Commons, a plan for conciliation. It was on the general plan, if the colonies would tax themselves to the satisfaction of the ministry, Parliament would impose on them no duties except for the regulation of commerce. "Whether any colony will come in on these terms I know not," said North, "but it is just and humane to give them the option. If one consents, a link of the great chain is broken. If not, it will convince men of the justice and humanity at home, and that in America they mean to throw off all dependence." This yielding of Parliament to the colonies could not be tolerated by the ultra ministerial party, and a wild storm of opposition ensued; but Lord North, with the assistance of the King, finally subdued it, and the Commons consented. When Vergennes, the French minister for foreign affairs, heard of these proceedings, he said, "Now, more than ever, is the time for us to keep our eyes wide open," for the French Court had resolved to promote the quarrel until the colonists should

become independent, and so weaken the British Empire by dismemberment.

In 1783 Lord North returned to office, after a brief absence, as joint secretary

LORD NORTH.

of state in the famous "coalition" ministry, and at the close of that brief-lived administration he retired from public life. In 1790 he succeeded to the title of Earl of Guilford. It is said that, in his old age, Lord North often became low-spirited on account of his having yielded his conscience to the will of the King, and remaining in the administration after he became satisfied that the war was unjust, and that peace ought to be made with the Americans. This thought disturbed him more than did his blindness. He died in London, Aug. 5, 1792.

North, WILLIAM, military officer; born in Fort Frederick, Pemaquid, Me., in 1755; entered the army of the Revolution in 1775; led a company in the battle of Monmouth, and, in 1779, became an aide to Baron de Steuben. He accompanied the baron into Virginia, and was at the surrender of Cornwallis. North was so beloved by Steuben that the latter willed him half his property. From July, 1798, to June, 1800, he was adjutant and inspector-general of the United States army, with the rank of brigadier-general. He was a member and speaker of the New York Assembly; United States Senator in 1789–99; one of the first canal commissioners of New York; and, in 1812, declined the appointment of adjutant-general of the army. He died in New York City, Jan. 3, 1836.

NORTH CAROLINA, STATE OF

North Carolina, STATE OF, was one of the original thirteen States of the Union. Its coasts were discovered, it is supposed, by Cabot (1498) and Verazzani (1524), and later by the people sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh. The first attempt at settlement in that region was made by 108 persons under Ralph Lane, who landed on Roanoke Island in 1585. It was unsuccessful. Other colonies were sent out by Raleigh, and the last one was never heard of afterwards. No other attempts to settle there were made until after the middle of the seventeenth century. As early as 1609 some colonists from Jamestown seated themselves on the Nansemond, near the Dismal Swamp; and in 1622 Porey, secretary of the Virginia colony, penetrated the country with a few friends to the tide-waters of the Chowan.

Early Settlements.—In 1630 Charles I. granted to Sir Robert Heath, his attorney-general, a patent for a domain south of Virginia, 6° of latitude in width, and extending westward to the Pacific Ocean. Heath did not meet his engagements, and the patent was vacated. In March, 1663, Charles II. granted to eight of his rapacious courtiers a charter for the domain granted to Heath. They had begged it from the King under the pretence of a "pious zeal for the propagation of the Gospel among the heathen." These courtiers were the covetous and time-serving premier and historian, the Earl of Clarendon; George Monk, who, for his conspicuous and treacherous services in the restoration of the monarch to the throne of England, had been created Duke of Albemarle; Lord Craven, the supposed dissolute husband of the Queen of Bohemia; Sir Anthony Ashley Cooper, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury; Sir John Colleton, a corrupt loyalist, who had played

false to Cromwell; Lord John Berkeley and his brother, then governor of Virginia (see BERKELEY, SIR WILLIAM), and SIR GEORGE CARTERET (*q. v.*), a proprietor of

SEAL OF THE STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA.

New Jersey—a man "passionate, ignorant, and not too honest." When the petitioners presented their memorial to King Charles, in the garden at Hampton Court, the "merrie monarch," after looking each spaniel with large, meek eyes, and holding it at arm's-length before them, he said, "Good friends, here is a model of piety and sincerity which it might be wholesome for you to copy." Then, tossing it to Clarendon, he said, "There, Hyde, is a worthy prelate; make him archbishop of the domain which I shall give you." With grim satire, Charles introduced into the preamble of the charter a statement that the petitioners, "excited with a laudable and pious zeal for the propagation of the Gospel, have begged a certain country in the parts of America not yet cultivated and planted, and only inhabited by some barbarous people who have no knowledge of God."

The grantees were made absolute lords and proprietors of the country, the King reserving to himself and his successors sovereign dominion. They were empowered to enact and publish laws, with the advice and consent of the freemen; to erect courts of judicature, and appoint civil judges, magistrates, and other officers; to erect forts, castles, cities, and towns; to make war, and, in cases of necessity, to exercise martial law; to construct harbors,

A NORTH CAROLINA MANSION OF THE OLD STYLE.

in the face a moment, burst into loud laughter, in which his audience joined heartily. Then, taking up a little shaggy

make ports, and enjoy custodies and subsidies on goods loaded and unloaded, by consent of the freemen. The charter grant-

ed freedom in religious worship, and so made Carolina an asylum for the persecuted.

Ten years before, a few Presbyterians from Jamestown, under Roger Green, suffering persecution there, settled on the Chowan, near the site of Edenton. Other NON-CONFORMISTS (*q. v.*) followed. The New England hive of colonists had begun to swarm, and some Puritans appeared in a vessel in the Cape Fear River (1661) and bought lands of the Indians. They were planting the seeds of a colony, when news reached them that Charles II. had given the whole region to eight of his courtiers, and called it "Carolina." Nearly all of the New-Englanders left. Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, was authorized to extend his authority over the few settlers on the Chowan. He organized a separate government instead, calling it "Albemarle county" colony, in compliment to one of the proprietors, and appointed William Drummond, a Presbyterian from Scotland (settled in Virginia), governor. Two years later some emigrants came from Barbadoes, bought land of the Indians on the borders of the Cape Fear River, and, near the site of Wilmington, founded a settlement, with Sir John Yeamans as governor. This settlement was also organized into a political community, and called the "Clarendon county" colony, in compliment to one of the proprietors. Yeamans's jurisdiction extended from the Cape Fear to the St. John's River in Florida. This settlement became permanent, and so the foundations of the commonwealth of North Carolina were laid. In 1674 the population was about 4,000. Settlements had been begun farther south, and the proprietors had gorgeous visions of a grand empire in America. The philosopher John Locke and the Earl of Shaftesbury prepared (1669) a scheme of government for the colony, which contemplated a feudal system wholly at variance with the feelings of the settlers, and it was never put into practical operation.

Refugees from Virginia, involved in Bacon's rebellion (see BACON, NATHANIEL), fostered a spirit of liberty among the inhabitants of North Carolina, and successful oppression was made difficult, if not impossible. They carried on a feeble trade in Indian corn, tobacco, and fat cattle with New England, whose little coasting-vessels brought in exchange those articles of foreign production which the settlers could not otherwise procure. The English navigation laws interfered with this commerce. In 1677 agents of the government appeared, who demanded a penny on every pound of tobacco sent to New England. The colonists resisted the levy. The tax-gatherer was rude and had frequent personal collisions with the people. Finally, the people, led by John Culpeper, a refugee from South Carolina, seized the governor and the public funds, imprisoned him and six of his councillors, called a new representative Assembly, and appointed a new chief magistrate and judges. For two years the colony was thus free from foreign control.

Then was enforced the political idea of Holland—"Taxation without representation is tyranny." In 1683 Seth Sothel appeared in North Carolina as governor. He ruled the colony six years, when his rapacity and corruption could no longer be endured, and he was seized and banished. Perfect quiet was not restored until the Quaker John Archdale came as governor in 1695, when the colony started on a prosperous career. In 1705 Thomas Carey was appointed governor, but was afterwards removed, whereupon he incited a rebellion, and, at the head of an armed force, attacked Edenton, the capital. The insurrection was suppressed (1711) by regular troops from Virginia. In 1709 100 German families, driven from their desolated homes in the palatinates on the Rhine, penetrated the interior of North Carolina. They were led by Count Graffenreidt, and founded settlements along the head-waters of the Neuse and upon the Roanoke, with the count as governor. They had just begun to gather the fruits of their industry, when suddenly, in the night of Oct. 2, 1711, the Tuscarora Indians and others fell upon them like lightning, and before the dawn 130 persons perished by the hatchet and knife. Then along Albemarle Sound the Indians swept, with a torch in one hand and a deadly weapon in the other, and scourged the white people for three days, leaving blood and cinders in their path, when, from drunkenness and exhaustion, they ceased

murdering and burning. On the eve of this murderous raid the Indians had made captive Count Graffenreidt and John Lawson, surveyor-general of the province. Lawson was tortured to death, but the count saved his life and gained his liberty by adroitly persuading them that he was the sachem of a tribe of men who had lately come into the country, and were no way connected with the English, or the deeds of which the Indians complained, and he actually made a treaty of peace with the Tuscaroras and Corees. Troops and friendly Indians from South Carolina came to the relief of the white people, and hostilities ceased; but the Indians, badly treated, made war again, and again help came from South Carolina. The war was ended when 800 Tuscaroras were captured (March, 1713), and the remainder joined their kindred, the Iroquois, in New York.

In 1729 Carolina became a royal province, and was divided permanently into two parts, called, respectively, North and South Carolina. Settlements in the north State gradually increased, and when the disputes between Great Britain and the English-American colonies began the people were much agitated. In 1769 the Assembly of North Carolina denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonists without their consent. In the interior of the colony an insurrectionary movement began, and in 1774 North Carolina sent delegates to the first Continental Congress. Finally an association was formed in Mecklenburg county for its defence; and in May, 1775, they virtually declared themselves independent of Great Britain (see DECLARATIONS OF INDEPENDENCE). Alarmed at the state of things, the royal governor (Martin) abdicated, and took refuge on board a man-of-war in the Cape Fear River. A provincial convention assumed the government and organized a body of troops. A State constitution was adopted in a congress at Halifax, Dec. 18, 1776, and the government was administered by a Provincial Congress and a committee of safety until 1777, when Richard Caswell was chosen the first governor of the State.

COURT-HOUSE AND CITY HALL, RALEIGH, N. C.

In the Revolution.—The Tories were numerous in North Carolina, where there was a large Scotch population. The Whigs,

however, were largely in the majority, and in 1780 they treated their Tory neighbors with unendurable severity. Cornwallis, in command of the British in South Carolina, sent emissaries among them, who advised them to keep quiet until they had gathered their crops in autumn, when the British army would march to their assistance. They were impatient of the severities to which they were exposed, and flew to arms at once. Of two considerable parties that assembled, one was attacked and dispersed at Ramsour's Mills, on the south fork of the Catawba, on June 20, by 500 North Carolina militia, under General Rutherford. The other party succeeded in reaching the British posts. These amounted to about 800 men. Regarding the subjugation of South Carolina as complete, Cornwallis commenced a march into North Carolina early in September, 1780. The main army was to advance by way of Charlotte, Salisbury, and Hillsboro, through the counties where Whigs most abounded. Tarleton was to move up the west bank of the Catawba River with the cavalry and light troops; while Ferguson, with a body of loyalist militia which he had volunteered to embody and organize, was to take a still more westerly route along the eastern foot of the mountain-ranges. Ferguson's corps was annihilated (Oct. 7) in an engagement at KING'S MOUNTAIN (*q. v.*); and this so discouraged the Tories and the backwoodsmen that they dispersed and returned home. Cornwallis had then reached Salisbury, where he found the Whigs numerous and intensely hostile. Having relied much on the support of Ferguson, he was amazed and puzzled when he heard of his death and defeat. Alarmed by demonstrations on his front and flanks, Cornwallis commenced a retrograde movement, and did not halt until he reached Wainsboro, S. C., Oct. 27, between the Broad and Catawba rivers. Here he remained until called to the pursuit of Greene a few weeks later.

In Civil War Days.—The popular sentiment in North Carolina was with the Union at the breaking-out of the Civil War, and great efforts were made by the enemies of the republic to force the State into the Confederacy. Her governor

PLANTING RICE ON A NORTH CAROLINA PLANTATION.

(Ellis) favored the movement, but the loyal people opposed it. The South Carolinians taunted them with cowardice; the Virginia Confederates treated them with coldness; the Alabamians and Mississippians coaxed them by the lips of commissioners. These efforts were in vain. Thereupon the disloyal Secretary of the Interior, acting as commissioner for Mississippi, went back to Washington convinced that the Confederates of North Carolina were but a handful. The legislature, in authorizing a convention, directed the people, when they elected delegates for it, to vote on the question of "Convention" or "No Convention." Of 128 members of the convention elected Jan. 28, 1861, eighty-two were Unionists. The people, however, had voted against a convention.

A TOBACCO MARKET.

The legislature appointed delegates to the PEACE CONGRESS (*q. v.*), and also appointed commissioners to represent the State in the proposed general convention at Montgomery, Ala., but with instructions to act only as "mediators to endeavor to bring about a reconciliation." They declared, by resolution, Feb. 4, that if peace negotiations should fail, North Carolina would go with the slave-labor States. They also provided for arming 10,000 volunteers and the reorganization of the militia of that State. Further than this the legislative branch of the government refused to go; and the people, determined to avoid war if possible, kept on in the usual way until the clash of arms at Fort Sumter and the call of the President for 75,000 volunteers filled the people of the State with excitement and alarm. Taking advantage of this state of public feeling, the legislature authorized a convention, and ordered the election of delegates on May 13. At the same time it gave the governor authority to raise 10,000 men, and the State treasurer the power to issue $500,000 in bills of credit, in denominations as low as 3 cents. It defined the act of treason to be levying war against the State. The convention assembled May 20, and issued an ordinance of secession by a unanimous vote. On the same day the governor issued orders for the enrolment of 30,000 men, and within three weeks not less than 20,000 were under arms. The forts were

again seized; also the United States mint at Charlotte. The loyal "North State," placed between Virginia and South Carolina, could not withstand the pressure of the untiring Confederates of those two commonwealths. Satisfied that there was a prevailing Union sentiment in eastern North Carolina, Colonel Hawkins, who had been left to garrison the Hatteras forts, issued a proclamation to the people of that portion of the State, assuring them that the National troops made war only on the enemies of the government, and had come to support the loyal people in upholding the law and the Constitution. A response to this was a convention of the people in the vicinity of Cape Hatteras, Oct. 12, 1861, who professed to be loyal. By resolutions the convention offered the loyalty of its members to the national government. A committee drew up and reported a list of grievances; also a declaration of independence of Confederate rule. A more important convention was held at Hatteras on Nov. 18, in which representatives from forty-five of the counties of North Carolina appeared. That body assumed the functions of a State government, and by a strongly worded ordinance provided for the government of North Carolina in allegiance to the national Constitution. The promise of good was so hopeful that President Lincoln, by proclamation, ordered an election to be held in the 1st Congressional District. C. H. Foster was elected to Congress, but never took a seat. This leaven of loyalty in North Carolina was soon destroyed by the strong arm of Confederate power.

Operations on the Coast.—General Burnside, when called to the Army of the Potomac, Nov. 10, 1862, left Gen. J. G. Foster in command of the National troops in eastern North Carolina. That region had barely sufficient National troops to hold the territory against the attempts of the Confederates to repossess it. These attempts were frequently made. The little garrison at the village of Washington, on the Pamlico River, were surprised by Confederate cavalry at early dawn on Sept. 5, who swept through the village almost unopposed. They were supported by two Confederate gunboats on the river. The garrison, after a sharp street-fight for nearly three hours, expelled the assailants, killing 33 and wounding 100. The Nationals lost 8 killed and 36 wounded. Foster was reinforced later, and determined to strike some aggressive blows that might intimidate his antagonists. Early in November he made an incursion in the interior and liberated several hundred slaves. With a larger force he set out from Newbern, Dec. 11, to strike and break up the railway at Goldsboro that connected Richmond with the Carolinas, and form a junction with the National forces at Suffolk and Norfolk. His passage of a large creek was disputed by General Evans and 2,000 Confederates, with three pieces of artillery. They were routed, and Foster passed on, skirmishing heavily. When near Kinston he encountered (Dec. 14) about 6,000 Confederates, well posted, and, after a sharp fight, they were driven across the river, firing the bridge behind them. The flames were put out, and 400 of the fugitives were captured. Foster pushed on towards Goldsboro, and near that place was checked by a large Confederate force under Gen. G. W. Smith. Foster destroyed the railroad bridge over the Neuse, 6 miles of the railway, and a half-finished iron-clad gunboat, returning to Newbern at the end of eight days with a loss of 507 men, of whom 90 were killed. The Confederate loss was near 900, full one-half of whom were prisoners.

In the winter of 1863 Foster sent out raiding expeditions, liberating many slaves. The raids aroused Gen. D. H. Hill, who concentrated a considerable force. He attacked Newbern with twenty guns, but was repulsed, when he marched on Little Washington, and on March 30 began a siege of the place. He planted heavy cannon at commanding points and cut off the supplies of the garrison of 1,200 men. General Spinola attempted to raise the siege, but failed. The transport *Escort*, bearing one of Spinola's regiments, accompained by General Palmer and others, ran the gantlet of batteries and sharp-shooters and carried supplies and troops to the beleaguered garrison. At the middle of April, Hill, expecting an expedition against him, abandoned the siege and fled. In May an expedition, led by Col. J. R. Jones, attacked the Confederates 8 miles from Kinston, capturing

their intrenchments, with 165 prisoners. They were afterwards attacked (May 23) by the Confederates, but repulsed their assailants. Colonel Jones was killed. Near the end of the month Gen. E. A. Potter led a cavalry expedition, which destroyed much property at Tarboro and other places. The country was aroused by this raid, and Potter was compelled to fight very frequently with Confederates sent against him. Yet his loss during his entire raid did not exceed twenty-five men. Soon afterwards (July) Foster's department was enlarged, including lower Virginia, and, leaving General Palmer in command at Newbern, he made his headquarters at Fort Monroe.

DISCUSSING THE TERMS OF THE SURRENDER OF JOHNSTON'S ARMY.

Early in 1865 Fort Fisher was captured, and General Sherman made his victorious march through the State, which ended in the surrender of Johnston's army in May. W. W. Holden was appointed provisional governor of the State, May 29, 1865, and a convention of delegates, assembled at Raleigh, adopted resolutions (Oct. 2) declaring the ordinance of secession null, abolishing slavery, and repudiating the State debt created in aid of the Confederate cause. A new legislature was elected, which ratified the amendment to the national Constitution abolishing slavery. The new government of North Carolina did not meet the approval of Congress; nor were the representatives of the State admitted to that body. In 1867 a military government for the State was instituted, and measures were taken for a reorganization of the civil government. In the election that followed colored people voted for the first time, when 60,000 of their votes were cast. In January, 1868, a convention adopted a new constitution which was ratified by the people in April. It was approved by Congress, and North Carolina was declared, in June, to be entitled to representation in that body. On July 11 the President proclaimed that North Carolina had resumed its place in the Union. The Fifteenth Amendment to the national Constitution was ratified

March 4, 1869, by a large majority. During that year and the next the State was much disturbed by the outrages committed by the KU-KLUX KLAN (*q. v.*). Governor Holden declared martial law in two counties; and for this articles of impeachment were preferred against him, and he was removed from office. Population in 1890, 1,617,947; in 1900, 1,893,810. See AMIDAS, PHILIP; UNITED STATES, NORTH CAROLINA, in vol. ix.

PROPRIETARY GOVERNORS.

COLONY OF ALBEMARLE.

William Drummond..	appointed	1663
Samuel Stephens.....	"	....Oct., 1667
George Cartwright....	president of council	1674
—— Miller.....	" "	... July, 1677
John Culpeper.....	usurps the governm't	...Dec., "
John Harvey.....	president of council	1680
John Jenkins.....	appointed governor	...June, "
Henry Wilkinson.....	" "	....Feb., 1681
Seth Sothel...	" "	1683
Philip Ludwell.....	" "	1689
Alexander Lillington..	appointed deputy gov	1693
Thomas Harvey.....	" " "	1695

NORTH CAROLINA.

Henderson Walker...	president of council	1699
Robert Daniel.....	appointed deputy gov	1704
Thomas Carey	" " "	 1705
William Glover.....	president of council	....May, 1709
Edward Hyde.....	" "	...Aug., 1710
" "	appointed governor	..Jan. 24, 1712
Thomas Pollock.....	president of council	.Sept. 12, "
Charles Eden.....	assumes office as gov.	.May 28, 1714
Thomas Pollock.....	president of council	.Mar. 30, 1722
William Reed.....	" "	.Sept. 7, "
George Burrington...	assumes office as gov.	.Jan. 15, 1724
Sir Richard Everard..	" " "	July 17, 1725

ROYAL GOVERNORS.

George Burrington...	assumes office	Feb. 25, 1731
Nathaniel Rice.....	president of council	.Apr. 17, 1734
Gabriel Johnston. ...	assumes office	..Nov. 2, "
Nathaniel Rice.....	president of council	1752
Matthew Rowan.....	" "	..Feb. 1, 1753
Arthur Dobbs.....	assumes office	..Nov. 1, 1754
William Tryon.....	" "	..Oct. 27, 1764
James Hasell.....	president of council	..July 1, 1771
Josiah Martin.....	assumes office	...Aug., "

STATE GOVERNORS (elected by the Assembly)

Richard Caswell.	Dec., 1776	David Stone.....	1808
Abner Nash.....	" 1779	Benjamin Smith.....	1810
Thomas Burke..	July, 1781	William Hawkins.....	1811
Alexander Martin.....	1782	William Miller.....	1814
Richard Caswell.....	1784	John Branch.....	1817
Samuel Johnston.....	1787	Jesse Franklin.....	1820
Alexander Martin.....	1789	Gabriel Holmes...	..1821
Richard Dobbs Spaight.	1792	Hutchings G. Burton..	1824
Samuel Ashe.....	1795	James Iredell.....	1827
William R. Davie.....	1798	John Owen.....	1828
Benjamin Williams...	1799	Montford Stokes.....	1830
James Turner.	1802	David L. Swain.....	1832
Nathaniel Alexander..	1805	Richard Dobbs Spaight.	1835
Benjamin Williams....	1807		

STATE GOVERNORS (elected by the people).

Edward B. Dudley....	assumes office	..Jan. 1, 1837
John M. Morehead...	" "	.. " 1841
William A. Graham..	" "	.. " 1845
Charles Manly.....	" "	.. " 1849
David S. Reid.....	" "	.. " 1851
Thomas Bragg.....	" "	.. " 1855
John W. Ellis.....	" "	.. " 1859

STATE GOVERNORS—*Continued.*

Henry T. Clarke.....	acting	1861
Zebulon B. Vance	assumes office	Nov. 17, 1862
William W. Holden..	provisional governor	.June 12, 1865
Jonathan Worth.....	assumes office	.Dec. 15, "
William W. Holden...	" "	..July 4, 1868
Tod R. Caldwell.....	" "	1872
Curtis H. Brogden....	acting	July 17, 1874
Zebulon B. Vance....	assumes office	1877
Thomas J. Jarvis.....	" "	Jan. 18, 1881
Alfred M. Scales.....	" "	" 1885
Daniel G. Fowle.....	" "	" 1889
Thomas M. Holt.....	" "	" 1891
Elias Carr.....	" "	" 1893
Daniel L. Russell.....	" "	..Jan. 1, 1897
C. B. Aycock.....	" "	.. " 1901
Robert B. Glenn.....	" "	.. " 1905

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Benjamin Hawkins.....	1st to 3d	1789 to 1795
Samuel Johnston.....	1st " 2d	1789 " 1793
Alexander Martin.....	3d " 6th	1793 " 1799
Timothy Bloodworth....	4th " 7th	1795 " 1801
Jesse Franklin.....	6th " 9th	1799 " 1805
David Stone	7th " 9th	1801 " 1807
James Turner.....	9th " 14th	1805 " 1816
Jesse Franklin.....	10th " 13th	1807 " 1813
David Stone	13th " 14th	1813 " 1815
Nathaniel Macon.....	14th " 20th	1815 " 1828
Montford Stokes.....	14th " 18th	1816 " 1823
John Branch.....	18th " 21st	1823 " 1829
James Iredell.....	20th " 22d	1828 " 1831
Bedford Brown	21st " 26th	1829 " 1840
Willie P. Mangum.....	22d " 24th	1831 " 1836
Robert Strange.....	24th " 26th	1836 " 1840
William A. Graham.....	26th " 28th	1840 " 1843
Willie P. Mangum.....	26th " 33d	1840 " 1854
William H. Haywood....	28th " 29th	1843 " 1846
George E. Badger.....	29th " 54th	1846 " 1855
David S. Reid.....	33d " 36th	1854 " 1859
Asa Biggs.....	34th " 35th	1855 " 1858
Thomas L. Clingman....	35th " 36th	1858 " 1861
Thomas Bragg	36th	1859 " 1861
37th, 38th, and 39th Congresses vacant.		
Joseph C. Abbott.....	40th to 42d	1868 to 1872
John Pool.....	40th " 43d	1868 " 1873
Matt. W. Ransom.....	42d " 54th	1872 " 1875
Augustus S. Merrimon...	43d " 46th	1873 " 1879
Zebulon B. Vance.....	46th " 53d	1879 " 1894
Thomas J. Jarvis.....	53d " 54th	1894 " 1895
J. C. Pritchard.....	54th " 58th	1895 " 1903
Marion Butler.....	54th " 56th	1895 " 1901
F. M. Simmons.....	57th " ——	1901 " ——
Lee S. Overman.....	58th " ——	1903 " ——

North Dakota, a northern frontier State, formed by the division of Dakota Territory into two States in 1889; is bounded on the north by the Canadian provinces of Assiniboia and Manitoba, east by Minnesota, south by South Dakota, and west by Montana. It is limited in latitude by 46° to 49° N., and in longitude by 96° 30′ to 104° 5′ W. Area, 70,795 square miles, in thirty-nine counties; population in 1890, 182,719; in 1900, 319,146. Capital, Bismarck.

Although the State yields coal to a profitable extent, its largest economic interests are comprised in its agricultural productions. In the calendar year 1903

the yield of wheat was 55,240,580 bushels, valued at $34,801,565; oats, 21,845,006 bushels, valued at $6,771,952; barley, 12,468,384 bushels, valued at $4,488,618; and hay, 175,775 tons, valued at $815,596. The bonded debt in 1903 was $692,300; the school fund, $1,418,629. The assessed valuation of taxable property, at one-third actual value, for 1903 was: real estate, $91,616,090; personal property, $54,921,354; total, $146,537,444; tax rate, $5.50 per $1,000. The valuation of personal property included railroad property assessed at $21,307,242.

History.—In 1780 a French trader settled at Pembina, now the county seat of Pembina county, which, in 1812, was occupied by a Scottish colony; but in 1823 the United States discovered that this place was a part of its territory and the national flag was raised over it. In 1858, when the State of Minnesota was organized, the Territory of Nebraska having been already separated, the remainder of Dakota was left without legal name or existence. By the act of Congress of March 2, 1861, the Territory of Dakota

STATE SEAL OF NORTH DAKOTA.

was organized, and in the following year its capital was located at Yankton. In 1883 the capital was removed to Bismarck, and in 1884 the act for the admission of Dakota into the Union was passed. In 1888 a convention met at Watertown and expressed a desire that the northern portion of the Territory be separated from the southern and formed into a State under the name of North Dakota. The Territory was accordingly divided and two States were created, North Dakota and South Dakota (*q. v.*), both being admitted into the Union on Nov. 3, 1889. In 1891 an aggregate of 1,600,000 acres of land, comprising a former Indian reservation, was thrown open to actual settlers. See United States, North Dakota, in vol. ix.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS.

William Jayne	appointed	1861
Newton Edmunds	"	1863
Andrew J. Faulk	"	1866
John A. Burbank	"	1869
John L. Pennington	"	1874
William A. Howard	"	1878
N. G. Ordway	"	1880
Gilbert A. Pierce	"	1884
Louis K. Church	"	1887
Arthur C. Mellette	"	1889

STATE GOVERNORS.

John Miller	elected	1889
A. H. Burke	"	1891
E. Shortridge	term began Jan.,	1893
Roger Allin	" " "	1895
Frank A. Briggs	" " "	1897
F. B. Fancher	" " "	1899
Frank White	" " "	1901
E. Y. Sarles	" " "	1905
John Burke	" " "	1907

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

Name.	No. of Congress.	Term.
Gilbert A. Pierce	51st	1889 to 1891
Lyman R. Casey	51st to 53d	1889 " 1893
Henry C. Hansbrough	52d " ——	1891 " ——
William N. Roach	53d " 56th	1893 " 1899
Porter T. McCumber	56th " ——	1899 " ——

North Point, Battle of. The humiliating events of the capture of Washington in 1814 created intense excitement throughout the country, but were somewhat atoned for by the able defence of Baltimore, which soon afterwards occurred. On Sunday, July 11, the British fleet appeared off Patapsco Bay with a large force of land troops, under the command of General Ross. At sunrise the next morning he landed 9,000 troops at North Point, 12 miles above Baltimore, and at the same time the British fleet bombarded Fort McHenry (*q. v.*), which guarded the harbor of Baltimore, a city of 40,000 inhabitants at that time, and a place against which the British held a grudge, because of the numerous privateers.

The citizens of Baltimore had wisely provided for the emergency. A large number of troops were gathered around the city. Fort McHenry was garrisoned by 1,000 men, under Maj. George Armistead (*q. v.*), and supported by batteries.

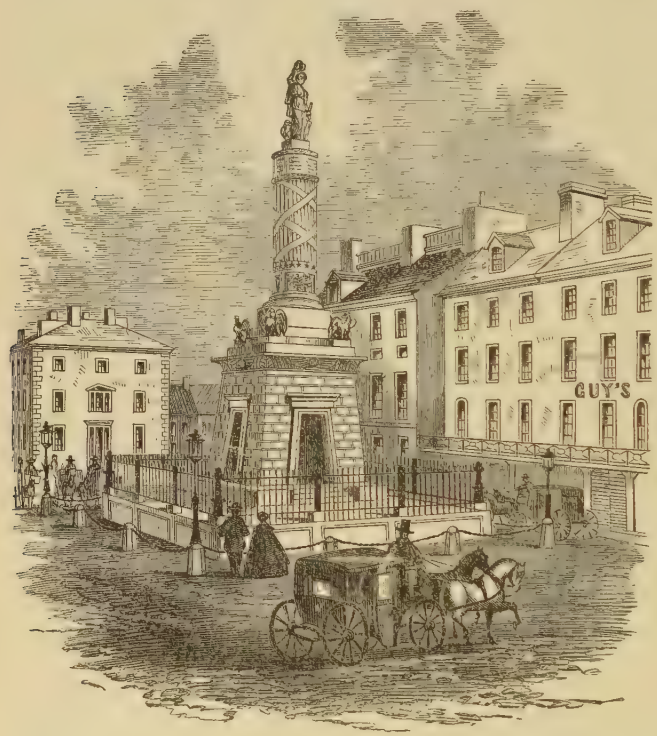
JOHN STRICKER.

The citizens had constructed a long line of fortifications on what afterwards became Patterson Park. Intelligence of the landing of the British at North Point produced great alarm in Baltimore. A large number of families, with such property as they could carry with them, fled to the country, and inns, for 100 miles north of the city, were filled with refugees. The veteran Gen. Samuel Smith was in chief command of the military at Baltimore, then about 9,000 strong. General Winder had joined him (Sept. 10) with all the forces at his command. When news of the landing of the British came, General Smith sent General Stricker with 3,200 men in that direction to watch the movements of the invaders and act as circumstances might require. Some volunteers and militia were also sent to co-operate with Stricker. Feeling confident of success, Ross, accompanied by Admiral Cockburn, rode gayly in front of the troops as they moved towards Baltimore. They had marched about an hour, when they halted and spent another hour in resting and careless carousing at a tavern.

From Colonel Sterett's regiment General Stricker had sent forward companies led by Captains Levering and Howard, 150 in number, and commanded by Maj. R. K. Heath. They were accompanied by Asquith's (and a few other) riflemen, seventy in number, a small piece of artillery, and some cavalry, under Lieutenant Stiles. They met the British advancing at a point about 7 miles from Baltimore. Two of Asquith's riflemen, concealed in a hollow, fired upon Ross and Cockburn as they were riding ahead of the troops, when the former fell from his horse, mortally wounded, and died in the arms of his favorite aide, Duncan McDougall, before his bearers reached the boats. The command now devolved on Col. A. A. Brooke. Under his direction the entire invading force pressed forward, and, at about 2 P.M. (Sept. 12), met the first line of General Stricker's main body, when a severe combat began. The battle raged for two hours, when the superior force of the British compelled the Americans to fall back towards Baltimore; and at Worthington's Mill, about half a mile in front of the intrenchments cast up by the citizens, they were joined by General Winder and his forces. The British halted and bivouacked for the night on the battle-field.

Meanwhile, the British fleet had prepared to attack Fort McHenry, and, on the morning of the 13th, began a bombardment, which was kept up until the next morning. At the same time the land force began to move on Baltimore. Their movements were very cautious, and, at evening, Colonel Brooke had an interview with Admiral Cochrane. It was decided that the movements of the British on land and water were failures, and that prudence demanded an immediate abandonment of the enterprise. At 3 A.M. on the 14th, in the midst of darkness and rain, the land troops stole away to their ships, and, at an early hour, the bombardment of the fort ceased and the British ships withdrew, Baltimore was saved. The British had lost, in killed and wounded, 289 men; the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, 213. The

grateful citizens of Baltimore devised a memorial of the salvation of their city and of the actors in it, as enduring as marble could make it. For them Maximilian Godefroy designed the beautiful structure which stands in Calvert Street, almost in the centre of the city. This monument is a cenotaph, surmounted by a column representing the Roman fasces. The whole monument, including the exquisitely wrought female figure at the top, symbolizing the city of Baltimore, is almost 53 feet in height. It was erected in 1815, at a cost of $60,000.



BATTLE MONUMENT, BALTIMORE.

Northeastern Boundary, THE. A dispute concerning the exact boundary between the United States and the British possessions on the east, as defined by the treaty of peace in 1783, remained unsettled at the close of President Jackson's administration, in 1837. In conformity with the treaty of Ghent (1814), the question concerning that boundary was, in 1829, submitted to the King of the Netherlands for arbitration. Instead of deciding the question submitted to him, he fixed a new boundary (January, 1837) not contemplated by either party. The American minister at The Hague immediately protested against the decision, but, as it gave territory in dispute to Great Britain, that government accepted the decision. The State of Maine, bordering on the British territory of New Brunswick, protested against the award. Collisions occurred, and the national government began negotiations with Maine with a view to an amicable settlement of the affair. An agent appointed by Maine recommended that State to cede to the United States her claim beyond the boundary-line recommended by the arbiter, for an ample indemnity. The subject passed through the various stages of discussion and negotiation, until the irritations caused by the sympathy of the Americans for the Canadians who had broken out into open rebellion against the British government caused great heat concerning the boundary.

The people of Maine were much excited, and armed in defence of what they deemed their rights. In fact, there were preparations for war in both Maine and New Brunswick, and the peaceful relations between Great Britain and the United States were threatened with rupture. President Van Buren sent General Scott to that frontier in the winter of 1839, and, by his wise and conciliatory conduct, quiet was produced and bloodshed was prevented. The whole dispute was finally settled by

the Ashburton-Webster treaty (Aug. 20, 1842) negotiated at Washington, D. C., by Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, and Lord Ashburton, acting for Great Britain, who had been sent as a special minister for that purpose. Besides settling the boundary question, the treaty provided for the final suppression of the slave-trade and for giving up criminal fugitives from justice in certain cases.

Northeastern Passage to India. The Dutch had large commercial interests in the East Indies. The Dutch East India Company was formed in 1602, and the establishment of similar companies to trade with the West Indies had been suggested by William Usselinx, of Antwerp. The Dutch had watched with interest the efforts of the English and others to find a northwest passage to India; but Linschooten, the eminent Dutch geographer, believed that a more feasible passage was to be found around the north of Europe. There was a general belief in Holland that there was an open polar sea, where perpetual summer reigned, and that a happy, cultivated people existed there. To find these people and this northeastern marine route to India WILLIAM BARENTZ (*q. v.*), a pilot of Amsterdam, sailed (June, 1594), with four vessels furnished by the government and several cities of the Netherlands, for the Arctic seas. Barentz's vessel became separated from the rest. He reached and explored Nova Zembla. The vessels all returned before the winter. Linschooten had accompanied one of the ships, and remained firm in his belief in the feasibility of a northeast passage. Another expedition sent in the summer of 1595 was an utter failure. A third, in 1596, under Barentz and others, penetrated the polar waters beyond the eightieth parallel, and discovered and landed upon Spitzbergen. Two of the vessels rounded Nova Zembla, where they were ice-bound until the next year, their crews suffering terribly. Barentz died in his boat in June, 1597, just at the beginning of the polar summer. His companions escaped and returned. Nothing more was attempted in this direction until the Dutch sent HENRY HUDSON (*q. v.*), in 1609, to search for a northeast passage to India. It remained for a Swedish explorer to make the passage in a steamship in 1879, passing from the Arctic seas into the Pacific Ocean, through Bering Strait. See ARCTIC EXPLORATIONS.

Northmen, THE. The Scandinavians —inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden—were called Northmen. They were famous navigators, and, in the ninth century, discovered Iceland and Greenland. In the tenth century a colony led by Eric the Red was planted in the latter country (983). It is said that an adventurer named Bjarni discovered the mainland of North America in the tenth century (986). These people were chiefly from Norway, and kept up communication with the parent country. According to an Icelandic chronicle, Captain Lief, son of Eric the Red, sailed in a little Norwegian vessel (1001), with thirty-five men, to follow up the discovery of Bjarni, and was driven by gales to a rugged coast, supposed to have been Labrador. He explored the shores southward to a more genial climate and a well-wooded country, supposed to have been Nova Scotia, and then to another, still farther south, abounding in grapes, which he named Vinland, supposed to have been Massachusetts, in the vicinity of Boston. Lief and his crew built huts and wintered in Vinland, and returned to Greenland in the spring, his vessel loaded with timber. Thorwald, Lief's brother, went to Vinland with thirty men in 1002, and wintered there in the vicinity of Mount Hope Bay, R. I., it is supposed. The next year he sent some of his men to examine the coasts, with the intention of planting a colony. They were gone all summer, and it is believed they went as far south as Cape May. In 1004 Thorwald explored the coast eastward, and was killed in a skirmish with the natives (see SKRÆLINGS), and the following year his companions returned to Greenland.

Thorstein, a younger son of Eric, sailed for Vinland with twenty-five companions and his young wife, Gudrida, whom he had married only a few weeks before. Adverse winds drove the little vessel on a desolate shore of Greenland, on the borders of Baffin Bay, where the company remained till spring. There Thorstein died, and sadly his young wife took his body back to Eric's house. During the next summer Thorfinn Karlsefui, a rich Norwegian

living in Iceland, went to Greenland, fell in love with the young widow, Gudrida, and, with his bride and 160 persons (five of them young married women), sailed, in three ships, for Vinland, to plant a colony. They landed, it is supposed, in Rhode Island. Thorfinn remained in Vinland about three years, where Gudrida gave birth to a son, whom they named Snorre, who became the progenitor of Albert Thorwaldsen, the great Danish sculptor. Returning to Iceland, Thorfinn died there, and his widow and her son went, in turn, on a pilgrimage to Rome. Icelandic manuscripts mention visits to Vinland in 1125, 1135, and 1147. About 1390 NICOLO ZENO (*q. v.*), a Venetian, visited Greenland, and there met fishermen who had been on the coasts of America. A remarkable structure yet standing at NEWPORT R. I. (*q. v.*), is supposed by some to have been erected by the Northmen. Bishop Thorlack, of Iceland, a descendant of Gudrida, compiled a record of the voyages of the Northmen from the old chronicles.

Northrop, LUCIUS BELLINGER, military officer; born in Charleston, S. C., Sept. 8, 1811; graduated at the United States Military Academy in 1829; later practised medicine in Charleston; and was restored to the army when Jefferson Davis was Secretary of War. During the Civil War he was commissary-general of the Confederate army, and made Richmond his headquarters. He died in Baltimore, Md., Feb. 9, 1894.

Northwestern Boundary. See OREGON; SAN JUAN.

Northwestern Territory, THE. The Congress was in session in New York City while the convention that framed the national Constitution was sitting in Philadelphia. That body performed an act at that session second only in importance to the crowning act of the convention at Philadelphia. On July 11, 1787, a committee, of which Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, was chairman, reported "An ordinance for the government of the territory of the United States northwest of the Ohio." This territory was limited to the ceded lands in that region. This report, embodied in a bill, contained a special proviso that the estates of all persons dying intestate in the territory should be equally divided among all the children or next of kin in equal degree, thus striking a fatal blow at the unjust law of primogeniture. It also provided and declared that "there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes whereof the party shall have been fully convicted." This ordinance was adopted on the 13th, after adding a clause relative to the reclamation of fugitives from labor, similar to that which was incorporated in the national Constitution a few weeks later. This ordinance, and the fact that Indian titles to 17,000,000 acres of land in that region had lately been extinguished by treaty with several of the tribes (the Six Nations, Wyandottes, Delawares, and Shawnees), caused a sudden and great influx of settlers into the country along the northern banks of the Ohio. The Northwest Territory so established included the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. It is estimated that within a year following the organization of the territory full 20,000 men, women, and children passed down the Ohio River to become settlers upon its banks. See ORDINANCE OF 1787.

Norton, CHAPPLE, military officer; born in England in 1746; became a lieutenant-colonel in the British army in 1774; was brevetted general in 1802; came to the United States in 1779, and fought in the Revolutionary War, receiving honorable mention several times. He died in England, March 19, 1818.

Norton, CHARLES ELIOT, educator; born in Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 16, 1827; graduated at Harvard College in 1846, and entered mercantile business in Boston. In 1849 he shipped as supercargo for an East Indian voyage; and subsequently made several tours in Europe. In 1874 he was chosen Professor of the History of Art at Harvard College, and held that post till 1898, when he resigned on account of age. He is well known as an authority on art and as a Dante scholar. In 1862–68 he was editor of the *North American Review.* He has edited the *Letters of James Russell Lowell; Writings of George William Curtis; Correspondence of Carlyle and Emerson, and of Goethe and Carlyle; Letters of Thomas Carlyle;*

Historical Studies of Church Building in the Middle Ages, etc.

Norton, CHARLES STUART, naval officer; born in Albany, N. Y., Aug. 10, 1836; graduated at the United States Naval Academy in 1855; and became rear-admiral and was retired in 1898. During the Civil War he served on blockading duty off Charleston, with the Potomac flotilla, and at Hampton Roads; took part in numerous engagements, including the battle of Port Royal, S. C.; was acting rear-admiral and commandant of the South Atlantic Station in 1894–96; and commandant of the Washington navy-yard in 1896–98.

Norton, FRANK HENRY, journalist; born in Hingham, Mass., March 20, 1836; assistant librarian in the Astor Library, 1855; chief librarian of the Brooklyn Library in 1866; subsequently engaged in journalism in New York City. Among his publications are *Historical Register of the Centennial Exhibition, 1876;* the *Paris Exposition, 1878; Life of Gen. W. S. Hancock; Life of Alexander H. Stephens; Daniel Boone*, etc.

Norton, JOHN, clergyman; born in Hertfordshire, England, May 6, 1606; became a Puritan preacher; settled in New Plymouth in 1635; and went to Boston in 1636, while the Hutchinsonian controversy (see HUTCHINSON, ANNE) was running high. He soon became minister of the church at Ipswich. In 1648 he assisted in framing the Cambridge Platform. He went with Governor Bradstreet to Charles II., after his restoration, to get a confirmation of the Massachusetts charter. A requirement which the King insisted upon—namely, that justice should be administered in the royal name, and that all persons of good moral character should be admitted to the Lord's Supper, and their children to baptism—was very offensive to the colonists, who treated their agents who agreed to the requirement with such coldness that it hastened the death of Norton, it is said. The first Latin prose book written in the country was by Norton—an answer to questions relating to church government. He also wrote a treatise against the Quakers, entitled *The Heart of New England Rent by Blasphemies of the Present Generation.* Norton encouraged the persecution of the Quakers, who declared that "by the immediate power of the Lord" he "was smitten and died." He died in Boston, Mass., April 5, 1663.

Norwood, THOMAS MANSON, jurist; born in Talbot county, Ga., April 26, 1830; graduated at Emory College in 1850; admitted to the Georgia bar in 1852; served through the Civil War in the Confederate army; was United States Senator in 1871–77; Representative in Congress in 1885–89; and author of *Plutocracy, or American White Slavery.*

Nott, CHARLES COOPER, jurist; born in Schenectady, N. Y., Sept. 16, 1827; graduated at Union College in 1848, and practised law in New York City till the Civil War broke out, when he entered the Union army as captain in the 5th Iowa Cavalry. He was commissioned colonel of the 176th New York Volunteers; was captured at the fall of Brashear, La., in June, 1863; and was held prisoner for thirteen months in Texas. On Feb. 22, 1865, President Lincoln appointed him a judge of the court of claims, and on Nov. 23, 1896, he became its chief-justice. He is author of *Mechanic's Lien Laws; Sketches of the War; Sketches of Prison Camps; The Seven Great Hymns of the Mediæval Church; Court of Claims Reports* (32 volumes); and many pamphlets and magazine articles.

Nott, ELIPHALET, clergyman; born in Ashford, Conn., June 25, 1773. Left an orphan while yet a boy, he lived with an uncle and taught school a few years. In 1795 he was licensed to preach, and began his ministry in Cherry Valley, N. Y. Afterwards he held a pastorate in Albany, N. Y.; and in 1804 he was elected president of Union College, Schenectady, which post he held until his death, Jan. 29, 1866. Upwards of 3,700 students graduated under his presidency. At the celebration (1854) of the semi-centennial of his presidency between 600 and 700 of the alumini who had graduated under him were present. Dr. Nott gave much attention to physical science, especially to the laws of heat, and he invented a stove which was very popular for many years. He obtained about thirty patents for inventions in this department. Nott's was the first stove constructed for burning anthracite coal, and was extensively used.

Nott, SAMUEL, missionary; born in Franklin, Conn., Sept. 11, 1788; was the last survivor of the first band of missionaries sent out to India by the American board of foreign missions in 1812. He was ordained just before his departure. He returned in 1816, and continued to preach and teach school nearly the whole of the remainder of his life. He died in Hartford, June 1, 1869.

Nourse, JOSEPH EVERETT, author; born in Washington, D. C., April 17, 1819; graduated at Jefferson College in 1837; Professor of Ethics and English Studies in the United States Naval Academy in 1850–64; and of Mathematics in 1864–81. His publications include *Astronomical and Meteorological Observations; Memoir of the Founding and Progress of the United States Naval Observatory; Narrative of the Second Arctic Exploration by Charles F. Hall;* etc. He died in Georgetown, D. C., Oct. 8, 1889.

Nova Caesarea. See NEW JERSEY.

Nova Scotia. In 1632 Charles I. resigned to Louis XIII. of France all claims to New France, ACADIA (*q. v.*), and Canada, as the property of England. This restoration was fruitful of many ills to the English colonies and to England. Chalmers traces back to it the colonial disputes of later times and the American Revolution. The inhabitants of Nova Scotia were more in favor of the struggling Americans than were those of Canada. A large portion of them seemed desirous of linking their fortunes with the cause of the "Bostonians," as the American patriots were called. They petitioned the Continental Congress on the subject of union, and opened communications with Washington; and Massachusetts was more than once asked to aid in revolutionizing that province. But its distance and weakness made such assistance impracticable. See CANADA.

Nowell, INCREASE, colonist; born in England in 1590; sailed for Massachusetts with John Winthrop in 1630; was commissioner of military affairs in 1632; and secretary of Massachusetts in 1644–49. He died in Boston, Mass., Nov. 1, 1655.

Noyan, CHARLES DÉSIRÉ AMABLE TRANQUILLE, military officer; born in Ruffec, France, in 1690; accompanied Bienville on his expedition to Pensacola; and after the capture of that post was placed in partial charge. The fort, however, soon fell into the hands of 900 newly arrived Spanish marines. Soon after Bienville with the aid of Indians recaptured the place. In 1720–23 Noyan was appointed major of New Orleans; and in 1727 he established several colonies in western Mississippi. He died in New Orleans, La., in 1739.

Noyes, EDWARD FOLLENSBEE, military officer; born in Haverhill, Mass., Oct. 3, 1832; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1857; practised law in Cincinnati, O., until the Civil War broke out, when he entered the Union army, in which he served with distinction, becoming a brevet brigadier-general of volunteers in 1865; was elected governor of Ohio in 1871; and was United States minister to France in 1877–81. He died in Cincinnati, O., Sept. 4, 1890.

Noyes, JOHN HUMPHREY, clergyman; born in Brattleboro, Vt., Sept. 6, 1811; graduated at Dartmouth College in 1830; licensed to preach in 1833, and in the following year declared he had experienced a "second conversion." He founded a new sect called Perfectionists in Putnam county, Vt. After twelve years he imbibed some of the teachings of Fourier and persuaded his disciples to live in communities. In 1848 he went with his followers to Oneida, N. Y., where he established the Oneida Community. He taught that God had a dual body—male and female. The only successful communities, those founded at Oneida, N. Y., and Wallingford, Conn., adopted what was named "complex marriage," and lived in a "unity house." Subsequently they were compelled to abandon "complex marriage" and their number soon diminished. Noyes published *The Second Coming of Christ; History of American Socialism,* etc. He died in Niagara Falls, Canada, April 13, 1886.

Nugent, SIR GEORGE, military officer; born in Berkshire, England, June 10, 1757; served in the Revolutionary War; promoted major in 1782; took part in the bombardment of Forts Montgomery and Clinton in New York; and afterwards served in Connecticut and New Jersey. He died in Berkshire, England, March 11, 1849.

Nullification, a term used for the re-

fusal of a State to permit an act of the national Congress to be executed within its limits—the practical application of the doctrine of State supremacy and sovereignty. The opponents of the national Constitution were generally the adherents of the doctrine of State supremacy, or State sovereignty, and they took every occasion to assert that sovereignty. They opposed laws made by the national government, and sometimes defied them. Negotiations were set on foot by the general government in the spring of 1793 with the Cherokee and Creek nations. In spite of the remonstrances of the Secretary of War, Governor Telfair, of Georgia, persisted in leading a body of militia against warriors of an unoffending Creek town, killing several of them and capturing women and children. Telfair declared that he would recognize no treaty made by the United States with the Creeks in which Georgia commissioners were not concerned. Similar defiance of national authority appeared in Massachusetts at about the same time. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that a State was liable to be sued by individuals who might be citizens of another State. A process of that sort was soon afterwards commenced in Massachusetts. As soon as the writ was served, Governor Hancock called the legislature together, and that body resolved to take no notice of the suit—ignore the decision of the national judiciary. The legislature of Georgia passed an act subjecting to death "without benefit of clergy" any United States marshal or other person who should presume to serve any process against that State at the suit of an individual.

The Kentucky resolutions of 1798 (see KENTUCKY) formulated the doctrine by saying that the Union was only a compact between sovereign States; that the government created by this compact was not made exclusive or final judge of the powers delegated to itself; but that, as in all other cases of compacts among parties having no common judge, each party has an equal right to judge for itself as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress. To this the Virginia resolutions of 1799 added, "a nullification by those sovereignties [the States] of all unauthorized acts done under color of that instrument [the national Constitution] is the rightful remedy." In the controversy over the AMERICAN SYSTEM (*q. v.*) in 1828 Virginia reasserted the right to construe the national Constitution for itself; and in 1832 South Carolina undertook to carry the doctrine into practical effect by an ordinance passed by a delegate convention chosen for the purpose, which declared the tariff acts of Congress to be null and void. The ordinance forbade the collection of duties within the State; required all persons holding office under the State to take an oath to support the ordinance on pain of vacating their office; pledged the people of the State to maintain the ordinance and not submit to force; and declared any acts of the general government to enforce the tariff, or to coerce the State, to be inconsistent with her longer continuance in the Union, and that she would proceed to organize a separate government forthwith.

The State legislature, which met immediately after the adjournment of this convention, passed laws in support of the ordinance. Military preparations were immediately made in South Carolina, and civil war seemed inevitable. President Jackson promptly met the crisis with his usual vigor. He issued a proclamation, Dec. 10, 1832, in which he denied the right of any State to nullify an act of the national government, and warned those engaged in the movement in South Carolina that the laws of the United States would be enforced by military power if necessary. (For the text of this proclamation, see JACKSON, ANDREW.) This proclamation, written by Louis McLane, then Secretary of the Treasury, met the hearty response of every friend of the Union of whatever party. It was emphasized by ordering United States troops to Charleston and Augusta. Met by such boldness and determination on the part of the President, with such a loyal majority of the people of the Union behind him, the South Carolina nullifiers, though led by such able men as John C. Calhoun and Robert Y. Hayne, paused for a moment; but their zeal in the assertion of State supremacy did not for a moment abate. Every day the tempest-cloud of civil commotion grew

darker and darker, until at length Henry Clay, the founder of the American system which had produced this uproar, presented a compromise bill, Feb. 12, 1833, which provided for a gradual reduction of the obnoxious duties during the succeeding ten years. This compromise measure was accepted by both parties. It became a law March 3, 1833, and the discord between the North and South ceased for a while.

Nuñez Cabeza de Vaca, ALVAR. See CABEZA DE VACA.

Nurse, REBECCA, witchcraft victim; born in Yarmouth, England, in February, 1621; emigrated to Salem, Mass., with her husband, Francis, in 1678, and was imprisoned for practising "certain detestable arts called witchcraft" early in 1692. Her trial took place on June 29, and although public opinion was against her, the jury declared her "not guilty." The judges would not accept this verdict, and pointed out to the jurors that she had spoken in her trial of a certain witch who had testified against her as "one of our company." She stated that the woman to whom she had referred was imprisoned with her on the same accusation. The jury withdrew again and found her guilty, and she was hanged, July 19, 1692.

Nurses, TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR, institutions established for the thorough training of men and women, but more especially the latter, for professional nurses. The oldest of these in the United States was established in Philadelphia in 1828, and there was no general movement for founding others till 1873. In 1880 a larger number were established than in any preceding year, and since then, with the growth of large cities, the organization of new and the extension of existing public and private hospitals have led to such an increase in the number of training schools that at the close of the school year 1901–02 there was a total of 545 schools in operation, with 13,252 students. The training course comprises from two to four years, according to locality, and is designed to fit students to take full charge of the severest forms of sickness under the sole direction of the attending physician. Graduates receive from $3 a day upward, according to their experience, the gravity of cases to which they are called, and the financial ability of their employer.

Nuttall, THOMAS, scientist; born in Yorkshire, England, in 1786; emigrated to the United States in 1808; travelled over the entire United States and Canada east of the Rocky Mountains; was appointed Professor of Natural History in Harvard in 1822. Among his works are *A Journey in Arkansas in 1819; Ornithology of the United States and Canada; The North American Sylva; North American Plants,* etc. He died in St. Helen's, Lancashire, England, Sept. 10, 1859.

Nuttall, ZELIA (Mrs.), archæologist; born in San Francisco; was educated in Paris, Italy, and Germany, and at Bedford College, London; has travelled extensively and made a special study of the languages and antiquities of Mexico and of ancient picture writings. She is well known on account of her researches in Mexican archæology. She is an honorary special assistant of the Peabody Museum, and holds membership in the American Association for the Advancement of Science and the American Philosophical Society, besides several foreign and American scientific societies. She is the author of several notable papers embodying the results of original researches in Mexican archæology. She has also made a large ethnological and archæological collection in Russia for the University of Pennsylvania.

Nye, JAMES WARREN, lawyer; born in De Ruyter, N. Y., June 10, 1814; received an academical education and began practising law in Madison county, N. Y. In 1861 he was appointed governor of Nevada Territory, where he greatly aided in holding the far Western States and Territories from seceding at the outbreak of the Civil War, and in 1865 and 1867 was elected United States Senator from Nevada. He died in White Plains, N. Y., Dec. 25, 1876.